

# THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

Vol. XXIII

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DR. LEONA BAUMGARTNER, NEW ASSOCIATE CHIEF OF THE UNITED STATES CHILDREN'S BUREAU,  
BEING SWORN INTO OFFICE

Federal Security Administrator Oscar R. Ewing and Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau,  
look on as the FSA personnel officer administers the oath.

(See p. 495)

# THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

Volume XXIII

DECEMBER 1949

Number 4

## ACTION OF SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE TAKEN BY UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL SUMMER SESSION, 1949

SAVILLA MILLIS SIMONS

SINCE its purpose is to improve conditions of life for people throughout the world, action taken by the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations is always of interest to social workers. Its decisions, however, are of increasing significance for social work as the United Nations moves ahead with substantive work programs.

The Council, in the words of the Charter, provides "international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples." It serves as the center of the complex United Nations system for dealing with international social and humanitarian problems as well as economic problems. It is responsible for co-ordinating the activities of all the intergovernmental organizations in the social field—World Health Organization; International Labor Organization; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization; United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund; International Refugee Organization; and the social activities of the United Nations itself. With the advice of the Social Commission, the Council makes recommen-

dations on the social welfare activities administered by the Secretariat of the Social Affairs Department and on the program of the International Children's Emergency Fund.

The action of the Economic and Social Council has attracted much less attention than have the political disputes before the Security Council. Nevertheless, the Economic and Social Council has initiated substantial programs of fact-finding and action that in the long run will do much to improve economic and social conditions throughout the world.

The Ninth Session of the Economic and Social Council held in Geneva, Switzerland, July 5 to August 15, 1949, took action on a number of issues of importance to social work. It also raised for further consideration some major questions of concern to social workers. Of great potential significance was the Council's clarification of the role of social projects in a program of economic development. Far-reaching questions were posed as to the future care and protection of refugees and stateless persons and continuing provision for meeting the needs of children. Basic

questions of social work organization are inherent in the decisions on these questions.

#### POINT IV PROGRAM OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The outstanding accomplishment of the session was the adoption of a comprehensive plan for the carrying out by the United Nations of its share in the Point IV Program of Technical Assistance to Underdeveloped Countries. Over a period of years this program will undoubtedly have great significance in raising standards of living throughout the world. Therefore, although it is a program for economic development, it is of importance to social work the world over.

#### THE PRESIDENT'S PROPOSAL

The program was proposed by President Truman in his inaugural address on January 20, 1949, when he called for "a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas." The President went on to say "more than half the people of the world are living in conditions approaching misery. Their food is inadequate. They are victims of disease. Their economic life is primitive and stagnant. Their poverty is a handicap and a threat both to them and to more prosperous areas. . . .

"Our aim should be to help the free peoples of the world, through their own efforts, to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens. . . .

"Only by helping the least fortunate of its members to help themselves can the human family achieve the decent,

satisfying life that is the right of all people."

#### PLANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The President stipulated that this program should be "a cooperative enterprise" carried out through the United Nations "wherever practicable." Consequently, the Economic and Social Council at its Eighth Session held February-March, 1949, had asked the Secretary-General, in consultation with the heads of the specialized agencies, to prepare a specific program of technical assistance. He was also to make recommendations on methods of financing and co-ordinating activities. The Council, consequently, had before it at its Ninth Session a report setting forth specific proposals for projects to be carried out by the United Nations itself and by each of five specialized agencies—Food and Agriculture Organization, World Health Organization, UNESCO, International Labor Organization, and the International Civil Aviation Organization. The estimated cost of these proposals totaled almost \$36 million for the first year and over \$50 million for the second year.

On the basis of this report the United Nations had the task of deciding questions concerning (1) activities that are appropriate and feasible and compose a balanced program; (2) methods of administering and co-ordinating the program; and (3) methods of financing.

#### CONTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL PROJECTS

From the beginning of planning for the program a major aspect of the first question of what activities are appropriate has been the extent to which projects of a social character contribute to economic development and should be included. The resolution on technical assistance adopted at the Eighth Ses-

sion, through an amendment proposed by the representative of France, asked that due attention be paid to "questions of a social nature which directly condition economic development."

It was clear that projects in health, especially those to control and eradicate diseases such as malaria, which have seriously interfered with economic development in many areas of the world, must accompany or, in some cases, precede specific agricultural or industrial projects. It was also agreed that basic and vocational education are necessary to a trained labor supply. There has been, however, much less agreement as to the contribution of social welfare projects in a program of this kind. A common opinion is that there is no place for assistance in developing social services or social insurance programs in the early stages of economic development but that such projects are needed to deal with social problems growing out of industrialization.

The tentative proposals prepared by government agencies for submittal to the Congress, however, included social welfare projects of both types: those designed to contribute directly to economic development through increasing the efficiency and productivity of manpower; and those to mitigate social maladjustments as a result of industrialization. The proposals made by the Secretary-General for projects to be carried out by the United Nations itself included provision for expert consultants, fellowships, and demonstration projects in social welfare.

#### TYPES OF ELIGIBLE SOCIAL PROJECTS

The final comprehensive resolution on technical assistance, adopted by the Council on August 15, 1949, includes in the annex on "Guiding Principles"

a section on "Selection of Projects," which was proposed in its original form by the United States. This statement reads as follows and because of its importance is quoted almost in full:

... The services envisaged should aim at increased productivity of material and human resources, and a wide and equitable distribution of its benefits, so as to contribute to the realization of higher standards of living for entire populations. Due attention and respect should be paid to the national sovereignty and national legislation of the underdeveloped countries and the social conditions which directly affect economic development. Requests for technical assistance may therefore be approved which will help governments to take account of the probable consequences of proposed projects for economic development in terms of the welfare of the population as a whole, including the promotion of full employment, and to take account of the social conditions, customs and values in a given area that would directly influence the kinds of economic development that may be feasible and desirable. Similarly requests may also be approved for technical assistance to governments desiring to undertake the specific social improvements that are necessary to permit effective economic development, and to mitigate the social problems, particularly problems of dislocation of family and community life, that may arise as a concomitant of economic change. As in any national programme for economic development, any increased services undertaken by the government can be maintained, in the long run, only out of national production. Special attention should be given in timing and emphasis to activities tending to bring an early increase in national productivity of material and human resources.

Various types of social projects, therefore, may be included in the program if they will contribute to an early increase in the productivity of manpower.

#### ORGANIZATION AND CO-ORDINATION

A major issue of controversy in the Economic and Social Council was how the projects to be carried out by the United Nations itself and the five semi-

autonomous specialized agencies were to be co-ordinated and whether the United Nations was to be given authority over the other agencies. The representatives of Australia and New Zealand asked for centralization of administration in the United Nations Economic and Social Council. The United States, on the other hand, supported a plan for co-operation and co-ordination in which the specialized agencies and the United Nations would jointly form a technical assistance board to exercise executive control over the program. The final resolution, although representing some compromises, followed for the most part the lines suggested by the United States. It provided for a Technical Assistance Board, composed of representatives of the United Nations and the specialized agencies to achieve co-ordination, and a Technical Assistance Committee, composed of representatives of all member governments of the Council and authorized to sit while the Council is not in session. The Board will exchange information concerning requests for technical assistance and review proposed programs, while the council committee will review the results achieved and will examine the program for each year presented to it by the Secretariat Board.

#### FINANCING TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The program is to be financed from voluntary contributions of governments that are made over and above their regular contributions to the budgets of the United Nations agencies. These contributions, which may be made in hard or soft currencies or in the form of materials and services, are to be paid into a central fund to be set up by the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Funds from this special account will be

allotted to the various agencies participating in the program according to fixed percentages which will hold regardless of the total amount of money made available for the program. The percentages agreed on are as follows:

Organization	Per Cent
United Nations.....	23
ILO.....	11
FAO.....	29
UNESCO.....	14
ICAO.....	1
WHO.....	22

A Technical Assistance Conference will be held to negotiate the amount of contributions from the various interested governments and to determine the total amount of money available for the program during the first year.

#### GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The guiding principles to be followed by participating organizations state that the primary objective of the program is "to help . . . countries strengthen their national economies through the development of their industries and agriculture . . . to ensure the attainment of higher levels of economic and social welfare for the entire population." Technical assistance is to be furnished on the basis of the requests of governments and in the form desired by the governments.

Standards for the selection of personnel to give technical assistance call for the "highest professional competence." They also call for a "sympathetic understanding of the cultural backgrounds and specific needs of the countries to be assisted" and "a capacity to adapt methods of work to local conditions, social and material." Participating organizations are asked to provide experts with a preparation "designed to give understanding of the broad objec-



tives" of the program "and to encourage openmindedness and adaptability." Governments, universities, technical schools, foundations, and other private organizations are asked to provide experts for field assignments and to arrange for their continued employment on their return.

The Council's action on the Technical Assistance Program and its recommendations on guiding principles and financing arrangements have been submitted to the General Assembly for approval at its Fourth Session this fall.

#### REPORT OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

One of the major functional commissions which the Council has set up to advise it on certain aspects of its work is the Social Commission. This commission is responsible for making recommendations to the Council on social welfare questions and other aspects of the social field not covered by the specialized intergovernmental agencies. Consequently, its report is of particular interest.

#### DRAFT CONVENTION ON THE TRAFFIC IN PERSONS

The Social Commission had devoted the larger part of its Fourth Session in May, 1949, to developing a Draft Convention on the Suppression of Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others. The Council at a previous session had requested the commission to give priority to this subject.

At the present time, there are four international agreements in force with respect to the suppression of the traffic in women and children. The first two date from 1904 and 1910; the two later conventions were developed by the League of Nations in 1921 and 1933.

One of the early actions of the United Nations was to take over the responsibilities formerly carried by the League of Nations for activities in this field and to continue work that had already been initiated by the League to prepare a new convention.

The Draft Convention prepared by the Social Commission at its last session combines into one convention the substance of all the earlier agreements and brings the provisions in line with present-day thinking on the treatment of this problem. The proposed convention is concerned with the punishment of persons who profit from the prostitution of others. The basic approach of the draft is to give emphasis to the elimination of any form of licensing or health certification and to the rehabilitation of prostitutes.

The most serious differences of opinion in the commission and in the Council centered on Article 6 of the proposed convention, calling for the abolition of any requirements for supervision. The representatives of France, with support from some Latin-American countries, attempted to amend this article so as to provide for registration for health purposes in accordance with the present French system. The United States representatives on the Social Commission and on the Council<sup>1</sup> opposed any form of medical licensing, on the basis that it encourages prostitution by giving a false sense of security, that it is value-

<sup>1</sup> The United States representative on the Social Commission is Mr. A. J. Altmeyer, Commissioner for Social Security. The United States representative to the Economic and Social Council is the Hon. Willard L. Thorp, Assistant Secretary of State for Economic Affairs. The deputy representatives are Mr. Leroy D. Stinebower, special assistant to the assistant secretary for economic affairs, and Mr. Walter M. Kotschnig, chief of the Division of United Nations Economic and Social Affairs, Office of United Nations Affairs, Department of State.

less as a health measure, and that it stigmatizes the prostitutes, thus making rehabilitation more difficult. The United States position was that medical care should be provided through public health services for all members of the population in need of treatment. Article 17 provides for measures for the prevention of prostitution and the rehabilitation of prostitutes through public and private educational, health, social, economic, and other related services.

The Council after considering the Draft Convention article by article submitted it to the General Assembly in the form recommended by the Social Commission. It will be acted on by the General Assembly at its fall meeting.

#### ADVISORY SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES

Of particular significance for social work was the Council's decision on the Advisory Social Welfare Services. This program, initiated by UNRRA and administered by the Secretariat of the Social Affairs Department since 1947,<sup>2</sup> provides practical assistance to governments in strengthening their social services. Services include (1) provision of consultants to governments on request, (2) fellowships to social welfare officials for six months' observation and study in other countries, (3) demonstration equipment for use in physical rehabilitation, and (4) seminars and social welfare literature for training purposes.

Under the program 24 experts gave consultant service to governments in 1947, 21 in 1948, and 31 requests for such service in 1949 have been granted. During 1947-48, 224 welfare workers had fellowships abroad. Eighty-five of this number studied in the United

States. One hundred and sixty-five fellowships for study in 16 countries have been granted in 1949. So far this year, 37 Fellows have been accepted for study in the United States by the Federal Security Agency, which, through its Office of International Relations, has responsibility for arrangements for placements in this country. Public and private social work agencies and schools of social work throughout the country at the request of the Federal Security Agency have participated in providing for the Fellows.

This program was first assumed by the United Nations as an emergency activity in the early postwar period. So far it has been authorized on a year-to-year basis. Now in its third year of operation, it has gradually been recognized as the type of continuing technical assistance the United Nations should provide in social welfare. Consequently, on the recommendation of the Social Commission, the Council asked the General Assembly to put the Advisory Social Welfare Services on a continuing basis and to provide for them regularly in the budget of the United Nations in the future. The Council recommended for 1950 approximately the same level of expenditures as in 1949, which amounted to \$675,000. This program constitutes the nucleus of a significant international social welfare program of an operational nature. Its acceptance as an integral part of the continuing program of the United Nations is an important step forward.

#### HOUSING

The Council adopted two resolutions on housing. The first provided for a meeting of experts in 1950 in a tropical area to consider technical questions relating to housing and town planning

<sup>2</sup> Under authorization of Resolution 58 of the General Assembly, December, 1946.

for lower-income groups in the humid tropics. Such a meeting had been authorized by the Council in 1948 but had not been held because insufficient funds had been allowed to hold the meeting away from the United Nations headquarters at Lake Success.

The Council had before it a report of the Secretariat on a comprehensive program of work in the field of housing that might be undertaken by the United Nations. The Council asked the Social Commission to review the proposed integrated program and to make recommendations concerning it at the next session of the Council to be held in February, 1950. The Council also recommended that the Secretariat consult member governments concerning what they think should be the focus of the future international program in this field and the services which would be of interest to them.

#### SESSIONS OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

The Social Commission at its Fourth Session in May, because of the work on the Draft Convention on the Suppression of Traffic in Persons, had been obliged to postpone consideration of a number of important subjects on its agenda. Deferred subjects included, among others, a program for study and action with respect to family, youth, and child welfare, which has been given priority in the work program of the Social Commission and of the Secretariat; a Report on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders; and the reports on two basic studies requested by the Council in March, 1947, on International Social Welfare Services and the International Exchange of Social Welfare Personnel. Consequently, at the request of the Social Commission the Council approved a second

session of the commission in 1949 to be held in early December.

The United States also attempted to obtain Council approval of two sessions in 1950 so as to enable the commission to deal adequately with its work program. This proposal was opposed on the basis of the extra expense entailed and the interruption in the work of the Secretariat occasioned by servicing the commission. Agreement was reached on a compromise that the 1950 session, which will be held in April, should be long enough to meet the demands of the commission's heavy work program—probably five weeks.

#### PREVENTION OF CRIME AND TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

The Council approved a proposal by the United States for a meeting in 1950 of the Expert Committee which acts as an advisory body to the Secretariat and the commission in formulating policies and programs in the field for the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders.

Closely related to the report of the Social Commission was action taken regarding the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission in connection with a report on the termination or integration with the United Nations of a number of small intergovernmental organizations in existence prior to the establishment of the United Nations. Since the first consideration of this subject by the United Nations in 1946, the question has been pending as to whether the activities of the IPPC should be integrated within the United Nations.

The United States position is that intergovernmental activities in this field should be primarily carried on in the United Nations in close relationship with other aspects of the social pro-

gram. Consequently, the United States proposed that the IPPC should be terminated and its assets transferred to the United Nations. At a meeting in Berne, in August, 1949, the commission found the United States plans for dissolution unacceptable and recommended that it retain its separate identity working in collaboration with the United Nations.

The United States viewpoint, however, prevailed in the Economic and Social Council. The approved resolution stated that the Council "continues to believe that the purposes of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission can be carried out within the United Nations while fully safeguarding the expert and professional character of the work undertaken in this field." It asked the Secretariat to consult with the IPPC so that a plan for "the eventual integration" of the commission within the United Nations can be submitted to the Council at an early session.

#### THE FUTURE OF TEMPORARY EMERGENCY AGENCIES

Two particularly difficult subjects on the agenda arose in part from the necessity of considering future plans for temporary organizations set up by the United Nations to deal with emergency problems immediately following the end of the war. The two agencies of this character are the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund and the International Refugee Organization. Questions concerning the possible winding-up of their activities within the next year or two years have been raised. Decisions on specific problems with respect to these two organizations have important implications for future international organization for social welfare.

#### THE UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN'S EMERGENCY FUND

The Council had before it the report of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund and a number of important recommendations made by the Executive Board at its meeting in Paris in June, 1949. The Fund, now in its second year of operation, reported that it was providing a daily supplement of protective food to six million children and mothers and a coat and a pair of shoes to millions. It was also vaccinating several tens of millions of children against tuberculosis and providing others with other types of medical supplies. The Fund was assisting children in Europe, Asia, North Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America.

*Need for contributions.*—The Fund has received from all sources total contributions of \$132,574,000. Sixty-eight per cent came from governments, 24 per cent from UNRRA residual assets, and the remaining 8 per cent from 1948 United Nations Appeal for Children campaigns and other voluntary contributions.

United States legislation authorizing \$100 million for UNICEF on a matching basis of \$72 United States dollars for every \$28 equivalent contributed to the Fund by other governments has been extended to June 30, 1950. Of this amount \$75 million has also been appropriated by Congress for contribution to UNICEF on a matching basis. UNICEF has already received \$57.4 million of this amount and anticipates a further \$7 million against pledged contributions. Contributions of approximately \$4.1 million must be made by other governments in order to permit the Fund to draw the remaining \$10.6 million of the United States appropriation which would permit a target budget

for the year July 1, 1949—June 30, 1950 of \$42 million. A further \$10 million would be required to draw the full sum authorized and to make possible expenditures for the year of \$72 million.

The Fund, consequently, faces serious questions concerning the financing of its program for the remainder of the year ending June 30, 1950. The Council, therefore, drew the attention to the General Assembly particularly to the fact that further contributions are necessary to enable the Fund to carry out its program for this year.

*Study of continuing needs of children.*—The Executive Board of the Fund at its June meeting decided to make a study of how the continuing needs of children can best be met within the framework of the United Nations. The recommendations for the study grew out of the temporary character of the Fund and the possible exhaustion of its resources. The study is to be made by the Fund in co-operation with the Secretariat of the United Nations and the interested specialized agencies. The Economic and Social Council concurred in the plans for this study. The outcome of the projected study may have great significance for the emphasis that is given to children's needs in United Nations plans. It may also have an important bearing on the pattern to be followed in international organization for social welfare.

The Council also had before it recommendations from both the Executive Board of UNICEF and the Executive Board of the World Health Organization regarding an offer of the French government of a children's center in Paris for teaching, demonstration, and research purposes. There was some difference of opinion as to whether the center should be an international center administered by the French government

and UNICEF or a national center assisted by UNICEF and the World Health Organization. This was resolved by asking UNICEF to make the necessary adjustments in the arrangements for the establishment and administration of the center as a national institution.

#### REFUGEES AND STATELESS PERSONS

Two items on the agenda were concerned with refugees—the annual report of the International Refugee Organization and a report by the Secretary-General on measures to improve the status of stateless persons and to eliminate statelessness. These subjects had a special urgency because of the expectation that the IRO might terminate its services about midsummer, 1950.

*The Annual Report of the IRO.*—The report of IRO showed that during the twenty months from July 1, 1947, to February 28, 1949, 62,621 displaced persons had been repatriated and 408,067 had been resettled. Of the latter group the IRO had assisted in the resettlement of 250,587 persons. In February, 1949, 701,447 refugees, including 3,296 unaccompanied children under seventeen years of age, were receiving IRO assistance. Of this number, 499,473 were receiving care and maintenance, for the most part in IRO centers, and 201,974 were receiving services. Most of these were in the western zones of Germany and were of Polish or Baltic origin. The Organization estimated that in the eighteen months between January 1, 1949, and June 30, 1950, 33,000 persons will be repatriated and 527,750 will be resettled.

The report provoked a controversial discussion in which the eastern European governments charged that IRO had failed to emphasize repatriation. The U.S.S.R. introduced a resolution asking countries in which refugees and dis-



placed persons are found to furnish lists of their names and addresses with other information. This resolution was voted down, and the Council adopted a resolution noting the IRO Report with appreciation.

*IRO recommendations for future action.*—Consideration of action to be taken after the termination of the program of the International Refugee Organization centered around the agenda item on the Report on Statelessness.

The General Council of the IRO at its session in early July came to certain conclusions as to the need for future international action for refugees and sent these to the Economic and Social Council in the form of a memorandum. The IRO Council recognized that when the Organization ends its work there will be large numbers of refugees who are at present under the IRO mandate but who will not have the protection of their country of origin and will not be absorbed into the community in which they are living. Furthermore, there will also be new refugees facing the same problems. The IRO has been carrying the functions for legal and political protection formerly performed by the High Commissioner's Office for Refugees under the League of Nations and later by the Intergovernmental Committee for Refugees.

The IRO Council concluded, therefore, that there must be no hiatus in international assistance to refugees in the protection of their civil status, which is necessary to economic independence and to living in a normal manner. It did not, however, recommend continuation of the IRO to carry on this function. It recommended that an organ within the framework of the United Nations be entrusted with this responsibility.

There will also probably be a residual group of refugees for whom continued

material assistance will be needed after the termination of IRO. The so-called "hard core" is made up, first, of persons who are physically disabled or chronically ill and their dependents and, second, of persons who are not selected for resettlement because they are relatively unemployable. In this group are the aged, large families with only one wage-earner, persons whose profession or age precludes their employment as laborers, mothers with young children and no wage-earner, potentially self-supporting families who have an ill or handicapped child or other member, and handicapped, unaccompanied children. The Organization is now providing medical rehabilitation and vocational training for some of the physically handicapped, and it is hoped that many of these will be resettled.

In its annual report issued March 31, 1949, the IRO stated that it was studying various alternatives for dealing with the "hard core" group, including (1) getting an agreement by governments to accept "a fair share" of the group, (2) acceptance of full responsibility for their care by the local authorities in the country in which they are now located, and (3) assistance from voluntary agencies. In a later report on "Future International Action concerning Refugees" made to the General Council of IRO in June, the Director-General stated as his opinion that it is not "within the power of a temporary agency, such as IRO to make financial provision for the permanent care of persons in the 'hard core' groups." He expressed the hope that any future international agency charged with the protection of refugees would have available to it "small annual grants sufficient to enable it to ensure that adequate care is, in fact, given to any persons in these groups for whose future



it will have been impossible to make arrangements." The General Council of the IRO in its memorandum to the Economic and Social Council referred to the possibility of setting up an international fund for the material assistance of refugees after the termination of IRO. It suggested that such a fund might be administered by the United Nations organ with responsibility for legal protection.

*Action by the Economic and Social Council.*—The representatives of France and Belgium on the Economic and Social Council urged that the Council decide at once to establish an office of high commissioner to provide legal and political protection to refugees and also to establish an international relief fund. The United States and some other governments, on the other hand, thought that emphasis must be placed on the IRO's completing its program of repatriation and resettlement as fully as possible and that further time was necessary to determine what the needs would be after the IRO ends its work and the best action to be taken. There was agreement, however, on the need to initiate immediate steps to insure continuing protection of stateless persons in their civil status.

The Economic and Social Council, therefore, took action to provide continuing machinery within the United Nations to assume the functions of legal protection. The adopted resolution, first, requested governments to provide necessary legal protection to refugees who are in their territories and have come under the IRO mandate. Second, it requested the Secretariat to prepare for the consideration of the General Assembly at its Fourth Session, opening in September, a plan for organization within the framework of the United Nations to carry the function of international

protection of refugees. Consideration is to be given to the alternatives of establishing a high commissioner's office under the control of the United Nations or setting up a service within the Secretariat of the United Nations. Third, the Council recommended that the General Assembly at its Fourth Session (1) decide on the functions and organizational arrangements for the international protection of refugees after the termination of IRO and (2) make budgetary provision for the assumption of this function in 1950. This, therefore, is one of the urgent questions coming before the General Assembly at its fall meeting.

#### CONVENTION ON STATUS OF REFUGEES

The Secretariat had prepared a report<sup>3</sup> in response to a request made by the Council at its Sixth Session in the winter of 1948 that a study be made of the existing situation with regard to stateless persons and of the national legislation and international conventions on nationality. It recommended the preparation of a general convention based on agreements now in force and in conformity with the principles incorporated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

The Council, acting on this recommendation, established an *ad hoc* committee of representatives of thirteen governments. This committee, if it considers it desirable to do so, is to draft a revised and consolidated convention on the international status of refugees and stateless persons. It is also to make recommendations on the means of eliminating the problem of statelessness. The committee is to report back to the Council at an early session after getting the comments of governments on its report.

<sup>3</sup> "Study on Statelessness," Vol. I, E/1112 (February 1, 1949), Vol. II, E/1112/ADD. 1 (May 16, 1949).

#### DRAFT CONVENTION ON DECLARATION OF DEATH OF MISSING PERSONS

During World War II and the years of the Nazi occupation large numbers of persons disappeared. A great many legal difficulties have arisen because there is no proof of death in these cases. Consequently, the Council, at its preceding session, set up a special committee of experts to draft an international convention on the Declaration of Death of Missing Persons. The committee, in June, prepared a draft convention and submitted it to the Council at its Ninth Session. The proposed convention would establish courts empowered to adjudicate the death of a missing person and to issue a declaration of death. Such a declaration would have the same legal effects as official death certificates. The Council asked the General Assembly to consider the draft convention at its fall meeting so that it could be opened for signature during the General Assembly session.

#### REPORT ON THE WORLD SOCIAL AND CULTURAL SITUATION

A current question of interest is whether the United Nations should make an annual report on world trends in the social and cultural fields. Such a report on world economic trends is prepared each year by the Department of Economic Affairs of the United Nations and is used by the Council as the basis for its debate on economic matters. At its last session the General Assembly asked the Economic and Social Council to consider the possibility of drafting a general report on the world social and cultural situation. The Council referred this question for exploration to the Social Commission, which is to make recommendations to the Council after getting the views of the various specialized agencies and nongovernmental organi-

zations with consultative status. That this question is under consideration reflects an increasing attention by the United Nations to the social aspects of the world's problems.

#### RELATIONSHIP TO AMERICAN SOCIAL WORK

The experience of social work in this country is brought to bear on international planning by the United States representatives to the various United Nations organizations. American social work is making an outstanding and continuing contribution to the development of United Nations programs.

International activities, in turn, are influencing American thinking in the field. The formulation of United States policy on international programs of social welfare requires taking into account the experience of other countries whose social work programs vary from ours in form and method owing to differences in economic and social development and in the stage of development. The exchange of social work personnel, such as is provided for through the fellowships under the Advisory Social Welfare Services, results also in broadening our concept of the field of social welfare to encompass types of programs often considered outside professional social work in this country. Participation in international activities, such as the training programs for personnel from other countries, is an enriching experience for American social workers. This interacting relationship between social work in this country and international social welfare will be of increasing significance with further development of United Nations programs.

OFFICE OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS  
FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY  
WASHINGTON, D.C.

## HAS BRITAIN SHOWN THAT HEALTH INSURANCE CAN WORK?<sup>1</sup>

JOHN G. HILL

IT IS now almost a full year since the British National Health Service came into operation in England, Scotland, and Wales. No single act of the Labour government since it came into power in 1945 has aroused so widespread an interest, provoked so much criticism, or provided so many conflicting stories on this side of the Atlantic as that one measure. There is scarcely a discussion these days of the proposal for government health insurance here in the United States in which at least part of the argument does not hinge on what is, or is supposed to be, happening in Great Britain. If for no other reason than to be able to follow intelligently the current debates on proposals here, it is necessary to know something about the British National Health Service.

### BACKGROUND OF THE BRITISH NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

It comes as a minor shock to some people to learn that the Labour government cannot be entirely blamed or credited—depending on one's point of view—with the National Health Service. Government planning for a comprehensive medical-care program really began back in 1941 under Churchill as part of his government's consideration of postwar reconstruction problems. But the beginnings of the story really go back much further.

<sup>1</sup> A paper given at the National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, June, 1949. Since this paper was prepared before devaluation of the English pound, the American money equivalents of English sums mentioned are in accordance with the old rate of exchange.

For thirty-six years prior to inauguration of the National Health Service, Great Britain had had a National Health Insurance program, which, as its name implies, was based entirely on the social insurance concept. At the time it was terminated last year, it covered only manual and white-collar workers earning £420 (\$1,680) per year or less.<sup>2</sup> Dependents and children of insured persons were not covered. Medical benefits were restricted, for the most part, to general practitioners' services and did not include hospital care or specialists' services. Some twenty-odd million people—roughly half the population—were covered, and about 84 per cent of the doctors in the country were treating patients under this scheme in addition to their private practices. Doctors were paid on a capitation basis, and the cost of the program was met by specified contributions from employers and the government.

There were also a variety of other provisions for medical care. For hospital and specialists' services there were voluntary hospitals, municipal hospitals, and public assistance institutions as well as special services for the treatment of tuberculosis and venereal diseases, for maternity and child care, and, mainly through voluntary societies, for

<sup>2</sup> The National Health Insurance Act of 1911 originally covered only those workers earning £160 (\$640) per year or less. In 1919 the coverage was extended by raising this sum to £250 (\$1,000) per year and again in 1942 by increasing it to £420 (\$1,680) per year, where it remained until the act was superseded by the National Health Service Act of 1946, which took effect on July 5, 1948.

home-nursing care. For those who could not pay, the local health authorities had responsibility for seeing to it that services were made available.

It is of interest to note that for many years Britain had also had voluntary hospital insurance schemes, roughly analogous to our Blue Cross. In his report on *Social Insurance and Allied Services* in 1942, Beveridge mentioned an estimate that these voluntary hospital insurance schemes covered about 25 per cent of the population and yielded about £6.5 million (\$26 million) annually to the voluntary hospitals.<sup>3</sup>

Despite this array of public, semi-public, and voluntary services, there were numerous criticisms. Gaps in the programs, lack of co-ordination, and the fact that all too frequently medical care was distributed according to economic status rather than medical need were considered the major defects. Surprisingly to us here in the United States, the organized British medical profession played a prominent part in making this type of criticism and was a leading proponent of corrective measures.

When the National Health Insurance Act was passed in 1911, the British medical profession was vigorously opposed to it. Gradually, however, its attitude softened, and by 1930 the British

Medical Association urged the government to extend the coverage of the health insurance program to include the dependents of insured workers, a recommendation which the Association repeated in 1938. In 1940 a Medical Planning Commission was jointly established by the British Medical Association and other British medical organizations. Early in 1942 it recommended that a comprehensive medical-care program be made available to everyone in the population. A few months later came the famous Beveridge *Report*, in which a comprehensive medical-care program was viewed as one of three "basic assumptions" on which the social security system which the *Report* recommended must be based. In other words, what Lord Beveridge said was that it would be impossible to create a satisfactory social security program for the country without such a health service. This was accepted by the Churchill government and by the medical groups, and in 1944 the Churchill government issued a White Paper setting forth the method by which it intended to implement that recommendation. This White Paper stated as a basic principle that medical care "should be put on a new footing and be made available to everybody as a publicly sponsored service."<sup>4</sup> To this the British Medical Association pledged its support.<sup>5</sup>

The Churchill government, however,

<sup>3</sup> Sir William (now Lord) Beveridge, *Social Insurance and Allied Services* (Cmd. 6404; 1942), p. 160.

Other estimates were made that as many as 75 per cent of the British population were covered in varying degrees by these voluntary hospital insurance schemes. The wide discrepancies in these estimates appear to have been due to a situation not unlike the present situation in the United States, where varying claims are made of the extent of coverage of voluntary health insurance schemes, and for much the same reasons. The statistics on coverage contained undetermined proportions of duplications, and the benefits varied from one scheme to another to such an extent that comparisons could hardly be considered valid.

<sup>4</sup> *A National Health Service* (Cmd. 6502; 1944), p. 6.

<sup>5</sup> In a mimeographed statement issued on February 18, 1944—the day following release of the Churchill government's White Paper—the British Medical Association stated: "With the Government's objects, to make available to everybody in the country who needs it, irrespective of age, sex or occupation, an equal opportunity to take advantage of a comprehensive health service, the medical profession is in the fullest sympathy. It will play its full part in achieving this object."

did not remain in power long enough to enact legislation. That was left to the Labour party, and the legislation that was finally adopted differed in several respects from the Coalition government's proposals. But the basic principle—that medical care, like education, should be available as a publicly sponsored service to everybody in the population—remained the same and was accepted by all political parties, the British medical profession, and the general public.

It should be pointed out that the dispute which arose between the British Medical Association and the Minister of Health early in 1948 and which was so widely publicized in the American press did *not* involve this principle. Rather it dealt with some of the administrative arrangements under which the new service was to be operated. There were four major points of disagreement:

1. *The method of compensating the general practitioners.*—The British Medical Association objected to the payment to all general practitioners of a basic salary along with the capitation fees on the grounds that a basic salary would ultimately lead to a full-salary service, which they strenuously opposed. The conflict was finally resolved by an arrangement under which only those general practitioners would receive the basic salary who requested it and could justify receiving it. Also, the Minister agreed that the method of payment would not be changed to a salary method without review by Parliament.

2. *The administrative controls over the location of new practices in the public service.*—The medical profession objected to the prohibition against a doctor's moving into, or establishing, a new public practice in a locality designated

as "over-doctored." This control remains but is to be reviewed after the act has been in operation for two years. It should be noted that this control does not apply to private practice.

3. *The prohibition against the sale of public practices.*—The sale and purchase of medical practices was almost universal in Britain, and the government proposed paying the doctors for the loss of their right to sell public practices in the new service. The doctors feared they would not receive so much for their practices as normally and, also, that ending the sale of practices would interfere with freedom to choose their partners and assistants. Assurance was given of freedom to choose partners and assistants, but the sale of public practices is still prohibited. Sale and purchase of private practices is not affected by the new act.

4. *The right of a practitioner dismissed from the National Health Service to ultimate appeal to the civil courts.*—Under the act, final appeal is to be to the Minister of Health, and no concession was made on this point.

It is clear from this brief outline of the background of the British National Health Service that the creation of a comprehensive medical program as a publicly sponsored service open to everyone who wished to use it was an undertaking due not solely to the Labour party but to the backing of the entire electorate as well as the medical profession itself. Regardless of what political party had come into power in 1945, there would have been a National Health Service which, while it would have differed in many respects from the present program, would nevertheless have had the same objective. A publicly sponsored service was the only plan considered likely to solve the medical-



care problem of the nation; it was a plan evolved after long years of vainly trying to cope with rising medical costs and inadequate distribution of medical care by means of voluntary and compulsory insurance programs covering limited segments of the population and by numerous other public, semipublic, and voluntary schemes.

#### BENEFITS UNDER THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

Under the British National Health Service all types of medical care, as needed, are provided free of charge to everyone in the country who wishes to avail himself of them. Since the National Health Service is not an insurance program, everyone in the country is eligible. Some 85-90 per cent of the cost comes from general tax revenues, mostly from the national Exchequer, although part of the cost comes from the local health authorities. The remaining 10-15 per cent comes from the National Insurance Fund, to which those (practically everybody in the population) covered by the other social insurance measures of the country contribute.

The range of services offered covers general-practitioner and specialist services, complete inpatient and outpatient hospital care, convalescent and rehabilitation treatment, optical and dental care, and home nursing. Prescribed drugs<sup>6</sup> and medical appliances, including spectacles and dentures, are also supplied. The only services for which there is a direct charge are those not needed on medical grounds, such as private hospital accommodation (except when necessary for the welfare of the

patient) or more expensive types of appliances or spectacle frames. I might also add that there is a charge for replacement of spectacles or other appliances made necessary because of the carelessness of the patient.

As was the practice in Britain prior to inauguration of the new service, the usual channel to most types of medical care is through the general practitioner or family doctor. He provides the ordinary general-practitioner services in his own office or in the home or he may refer the patient for hospital or specialist care. A patient may select any general practitioner participating in the service in his area and, if the doctor accepts him, is placed on the doctor's list, which entitles him to that doctor's services. The patient may change doctors for any reason. Likewise, the doctor may refuse to take any patient or may have a patient dropped from his list. Neither doctors nor patients are compelled to participate in the public service, both being free to make private arrangements, as formerly.

The services of specialists are usually provided through the hospitals. Optical services will eventually be incorporated with the specialist services in the hospital; but until they are, patients will be certified by the family doctor for care by any participating optician. Present arrangements for dental care are also temporary, as dental clinics will eventually be set up for this service. At present, a priority dental program is operated by the local health authorities for expectant mothers and young children, but others go directly to any participating dentist.

#### PARTICIPATION IN THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

Perhaps the most striking fact about the operation of the National Health

<sup>6</sup> On October 24, 1949, Prime Minister Attlee announced a fixed nominal charge of "not more than a shilling" for medical prescriptions issued under the National Health Service. Old age pensioners are exempt from this charge.



Service since it took effect last July 5 is the unexpectedly high proportion of both the medical profession and the public who are participating in it. Last April, the *British Medical Journal* stated that 20,000—which is well over 90 per cent—of the country's general practitioners had signed up for the National Health Service on either a full- or part-time basis.<sup>7</sup> This exceeded the expectations of both the profession and the government.

This unexpectedly high proportion of the general practitioners who are participating is not entirely due to their real desire to do so, for, while the right to continue in private practice is legally guaranteed, the opportunities for doing so have been sharply curtailed by the heavy proportion of the population who have sought care under the National Health Service. Various estimates placed the number of those who would continue to receive medical care under private arrangement at 15 per cent or more. However, it has developed that 95 per cent of the population have signed up for the public service, and some estimates published last April in the *British Medical Journal* place the proportion as high as 98 per cent.<sup>7</sup> The numbers of those participating has been particularly surprising in the wealthier districts. The more affluent doctors formerly drew their patients from the wealthier 10–15 per cent of the population, but obviously many of these, too, have sought medical care under the new scheme. Exponents of the National Health Service in England look upon this development as salutary, on the theory that the wealthier groups, having been in the habit of demanding and receiving the highest quality of medical

care, will help to maintain standards under the National Health Service.

The same story is true of other branches of the service. Approximately 92 per cent of the estimated 12,500 dentists in England, Scotland, and Wales have joined, despite the persistent advice of the British Dental Association to its members not to do so.<sup>8</sup> Similar percentages of the estimated 6,400 opticians and 17,000 pharmacists are also reported to be participating.

<sup>8</sup> The British Dental Association includes only about 58 per cent of the dental practitioners in England. Three principal reasons are given by the Association for advising its members not to participate: (1) Fear of clinical interference on the part of the government. To date, there has been no evidence of such interference, and even the dental profession itself acknowledges that they have been given a very wide latitude in their work. (2) The method of payment. Originally, the dental profession requested a grant-in-aid basis of payment under which the government would pay the dentist according to a set scale of fees for services rendered but leave the dentist free to charge patients additional amounts. The government objected to this method on the grounds that such a system of payment would defeat the main purpose of the new service, since its chief effect would be to put a floor under the fees of the dentist. The final compromise was a fee-for-service basis of payment by which a dentist in the service would be paid a set scale of fees for each service rendered but would not be permitted to charge additional sums to his public patients. (3) Fear of a salaried method of payment. As has been mentioned, dental clinics will eventually be established in the health centers, and there is a possibility that some form of salaried method of payment may be used to compensate the dentists who will work in them. The indication that this is being contemplated is the fact that the Minister of Health would not agree that a salaried method of payment to the dentists would not be introduced without review by Parliament, despite the request of the British Dental Association that he do so. Even certain members of the dental profession acknowledge that the present method of payment of the dentist (fee for service) puts temptation to certain abuses in the way of less scrupulous members of the profession. See Dr. Don W. Gullet, "A Lesson from Overseas—the British Health Insurance Scheme through the Eyes of a Canadian Dentist," *Journal of the American Dental Association* (Sec. 2), April, 1949. Also, "The Act in Action: The Dental Services," *Lancet*, December 18, 1948.

<sup>7</sup> "Annual Report of 1948–49 of the Council of the British Medical Association," *British Medical Journal*, April 2, 1949.

## EFFECT ON MEDICAL PRACTICE

What has this heavy enrolment meant to medical practice and to the quality of care? It has, of course, placed a much heavier demand on all branches of medical service. The *Lancet*—a 125-year-old independent British medical journal—in a survey of the workings of the new act, estimated that the average number of those attending doctors' offices had risen by one-quarter to one-half.<sup>9</sup> There are, no doubt, instances where the increase has been much greater, particularly in the heavily populated industrial centers.

The demands for hospital treatment have also been greatly increased. The *Lancet* survey of the hospital services estimated that the number of those now seeking hospital treatment is about three times what it was before the National Health Service began.<sup>10</sup> The waiting lists of most hospitals have been greatly lengthened, the most difficulty being experienced in efforts to care for the chronically ill or those likely to become chronically ill. For certain types of treatment not immediately urgent the waiting period may often run to many months, although most hospitals reserve about 10–15 per cent of available space so that emergency cases can be dealt with at once.

Some of the heaviest increases have been felt in the dental and optical services. Most dentists are booked up several months in advance, and the waiting period for spectacles runs, on the average, to from four to eight weeks and sometimes longer. The latest official figures, quoted recently by the *British Medical Journal*, show that for the first

<sup>9</sup> "The Act in Action: The General Practitioner," *Lancet*, November 20, 1948.

<sup>10</sup> "The Act in Action: Hospital Outpatients and Admissions," *Lancet*, January 22, 1949.

six months of the National Health Service 3.4 million persons had received or were receiving dental care and that 2.5 million had had their sight tested. Spectacles were being ordered at a rate close to 8 million pairs per year, over twice the former number and 40 per cent above the government estimates.<sup>11</sup>

Much of the adverse criticism of the British National Health Service is based on the present shortages of personnel and facilities to meet at once all demands placed upon them. In our own country, critics point to this as grounds for condemning the whole system. In Britain, it was fully realized that medical resources would not at once be sufficient for all needs, for there were shortages prior to July 5. For the period during which resources were being brought into balance with demand, the decision had to be made as to whether the facilities that were available should be immediately accessible to everybody on the basis of physical need or whether they should be rationed on some priority basis. There were, and still are, differences of opinion as to what should have been done. The action of the government was to give access to existing resources to everybody on the basis of physical need, with the exception of the dental services, where, because of extreme shortages, a priority system was established for expectant and nursing mothers and young children. Also, many were of the opinion that removing any economic or other barrier to medical care would expose existing resources to the full needs of the entire population and act as the most powerful stimulant to speedy and adequate provision of the resources really necessary.

While it is possible to quarrel with

<sup>11</sup> "Annual Report of 1948–49 of the Council of the British Medical Association" (see n. 7, above).

this approach, it must be recognized that it is a question of *approach* and not a question of the ultimate effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the National Health Service. Even if Britain were to curtail certain services temporarily on some priority basis (which I hasten to add is *not* being considered), such action would not of itself be grounds for condemning the entire program—as many would no doubt do—but only for criticizing the method the British government took to launch its new program.

Most of the complaints with respect to the strain on the nation's medical services appear to be coming from the general practitioners, and it is undoubtedly true that many are heavily burdened. Much of this difficulty arises from the present maldistribution between the general practitioners and the population, a problem which exists under any form of medical practice but which is thrown into bold relief by a program like the National Health Service. The *Lancet* states that a family doctor should be able to care for from 2,000 to 3,000 patients adequately, depending on the temperament of the doctor and the geographic and other characteristics of his practice.<sup>12</sup> The ratio of the total population of England, Scotland, and Wales (48 million) to the number of general practitioners in the National Health Service (20,000) is about 1:2,400; but, with the present maldistribution between the doctors and the population, this theoretic average-size practice will not be possible for some time to come, and, under present arrangements, a general practitioner in the National Health Service is permitted to take a maximum of 4,000 patients. Since the opportunity for private practice has

almost disappeared, most doctors feel they must strive for that maximum under the method of straight capitation payment on which they insisted.

The ultimate solution of this problem lies not only in better distribution of the doctors but also in an increase of their numbers. It will take many years to increase the number of the doctors, although the medical schools are full to capacity. There is a central Medical Practices Committee, seven of whose nine members are medical practitioners, charged with responsibility for achieving better distribution of the doctors; it is this committee which designates areas as "over-doctored" and in which new public practices may therefore not be established or into which a doctor in the public service may not move. However, probably as a result of the strenuous opposition of the medical profession to this "indirect control" of their movements, there have been very few areas designated as "over-doctored," although this matter is scheduled for review.

The suggestion of many in the medical profession for coping with this problem is the speedier provision of the health centers. Health centers are called for in the plan for the National Health Service. They will consist of technically equipped premises, constructed and staffed at public expense, where general practitioners and dentists in the service will see their patients. Nurses, clerical staff, and other auxiliary personnel will be provided to relieve the doctor of much of the routine parts of his job, including the much discussed certification and paperwork, which can as well be done by others under his direction. So far, there is one health center in Birmingham, several others have been approved for the London area, and

<sup>12</sup> "The Act in Action: The General Practitioner" (see n. 9, above).

plans are being submitted for health centers in other sections of the country. It is estimated that working in a health center would conserve about 25 per cent of the doctor's professional time. Editorial comments and letters in the columns of British medical journals indicate that the doctors do not believe the construction of health centers is being given the priority it deserves.<sup>13</sup>

In contradiction to some reports here, the *Lancet*, in its survey of the operation of the National Health Service, stated that "every account agrees that frivolous complaints [being brought to the doctor] are no commoner than before." Also, dishonesty under the system is rare, although cases that have come to light are widely publicized. The most common complaint among the doctors regarding the type of ailments they are asked to treat was put this way by Dr. Dain, chairman of the Council of the British Medical Association: "No longer are we called upon to see a patient; we are called to see a family."<sup>14</sup> Whether a doctor is called in or visited, no financial barrier remains to his being asked to advise on other members of the household. Not all doctors, however, look upon this as bad. As one general practitioner put it in a recent issue of a British medical journal:

There will never be preventive medicine unless patients are encouraged to take occasional risks with the doctor's valuable time. . . . It is useless to preach prevention rather than cure without offering practical help in bringing the preventable to the doctor's notice in good time.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>13</sup> See, particularly, "The Act in Action: Health Centers Now?" *Lancet*, February 26, 1949.

<sup>14</sup> Statement by Dr. Guy Dain at a Conference of the Local Medical Committees held in November, 1948.

<sup>15</sup> Letter signed "General Practitioner," *Lancet*, March 26, 1949.

#### PAYMENT OF THE DOCTORS

If one is to judge by the amount of space devoted to it in the last several months' issues of the *British Medical Journal*,<sup>16</sup> the subject uppermost in the minds of the general practitioners at the moment is remuneration. The remuneration of the general practitioners, specialists, and dentists in the National Health Service was based on recommendations of a committee under the chairmanship of Sir Will Spens, of Cambridge University. The Spens Committee surveyed the incomes of medical practitioners earned prior to the war and made recommendations, in 1939 money values, of the amounts and the distribution of incomes which should be achieved under the National Health Service. These recommendations were accepted by the profession and the government, and the method and amount of payments in current money values were negotiated by the government and the profession.

General practitioners are paid according to the numbers of persons on their lists for whose care they have accepted responsibility. For each person, the doctor receives a flat annual sum, or capitation fee, of about 17s. 6d. (\$3.46), regardless of how much or how little service the person requires during the year. Doctors who receive the basic salary are paid £300 (\$1,200) per year, plus capitation fees reduced by one-seventh the normal amount. There are also special payments to general practitioners for treating emergency cases, maternity cases, for the administration of anesthetics, and in certain areas mileage payments for home calls. At present, dentists are paid on a fee-for-

<sup>16</sup> See particularly "Annual Report of 1948-49 of the Council of the British Medical Association" (see n. 7, above).



service basis, according to a set scale for each service rendered. Opticians are also paid on a fee basis, according to a scale for each item of service. Specialists in full- or part-time service are paid on a salary basis, ranging up to £2,750 (\$11,000) per year for a full-time specialist. Special awards are given to about one-third of the specialists, bringing the maximum salary of a specialist up to £5,250 (\$21,000) per year.

Exact figures on the distribution of the incomes of general practitioners are not yet available for the period from July 5 to March 31, the end of the British fiscal year. Nevertheless, there is clear indication that there have been substantial shifts in income both ways: those working in congested areas with the maximum of 4,000 patients are reported to have experienced a 25-30 per cent increase in income, while those in thinly populated areas or in wealthier districts with fewer patients have had substantial reductions.

Last March the General Medical Practices Committee—the central body concerned mainly with the distribution of doctors—submitted a report to the Minister of Health pointing out the dissatisfaction of the general practitioners with the remuneration. The report stated that, in general, the objectives of the Spens Committee recommendations were being achieved with respect to the doctors in the forty to forty-nine age group, but that there were too many low incomes in the group under forty years of age and too few high incomes in the group over fifty. It recommended an increase in the fund for payment to the general practitioners and that the increase be used to raise the capitation rate for the first one thousand or two thousand patients on the doctor's list.

Another aspect of the dissatisfaction

of the general practitioners with respect to remuneration is the inequity between what some of them are earning as compared with some of the dentists. As I have mentioned, the dentists are at present paid on a fee-for-service basis—what most students of this subject believe to be the most ineffective way of remunerating doctors under a national medical-care program. The recommendations of the Spens Committee for the dentists were based on a thirty-three-hour-week at the dentist's chairside plus added hours for other work, which the dentists agreed was a fair amount. However, no maximum was placed on the number of patients or the amount of work a dentist could undertake. A few months after the service began, it developed that many dentists were working double, or almost double, the thirty-three hours at the chairside and grossing much larger incomes in relation to the general medical practitioners than was anticipated or intended. On the grounds that the number of hours these dentists were spending at the chairside would impair efficiency, the Minister of Health, as of the first of this year, cut the payments above £4,800 (\$19,200) per year by 50 per cent. This allows full payment up to forty-two chairside hours per week, or nine hours above that recommended by the Spens Committee and accepted by the dental profession.

There seems little question that these inequities which have emerged in the remuneration of the doctors need to be reviewed in the light of this experience. That this review will take place seems probable in view of a recent announcement by the *British Medical Journal* that the Minister of Health has been collecting the exact figures on the distribution of incomes among the general practitioners from the 138 local execu-

tive councils where the actual payments are made.<sup>17</sup>

#### EFFECT ON QUALITY OF CARE

Fundamental to an appraisal of the National Health Service is the effect it is exerting on the quality of medical care. It seems to me reasonable to suppose that, when the medical resources of a country are admitted to be in short supply, suddenly making them available to the entire population is bound to lower the highest quality and quantity of service formerly accessible to a limited section of the population, while for those who formerly did without or nearly without it would mean an improvement. It is therefore not surprising to me that we are receiving conflicting reports that the quality of care under the National Health Service has been both improved and lowered. Undoubtedly, there is truth in both reports. As to how the quality of care is affected, the *Lancet* expressed the view that "at one pole, the acutely ill patient, and at the other the person with mild bronchitis are likely to fare no differently than before," but that the differences would be felt between those extremes.<sup>18</sup>

The criterion by which to judge the quality of care under the National Health Service seems to me not whether the many are now receiving the benefit of the highest quality of care formerly accessible to the few but whether the mass of people are on the whole receiving better care. There is substantial evidence that they are. Most impartial observers of the National Health Service admit that every illustration of lowered quality of care can be more than matched by the amount of undisclosed

illness coming to light or by cases in which better care, or any care, is now being received which was not possible before. In the same *Lancet* article to which I have just referred, it was stated:

The service has brought to light untreated illness in the old, in children and in women. The amount of undisclosed illness is particularly large in women, many of whom have suffered for years without referring to a doctor.<sup>19</sup>

#### COST OF THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

One final matter regarding the National Health Service which has received considerable publicity is the matter of cost. Preliminary estimates early in 1948 placed the gross cost of the National Health Service for the first nine months of operation—July 5–March 31, the close of the financial year—at £198 million (\$792 million), including the amount from the local health authorities and the National Insurance Fund. Actually, however, the gross cost of the service during this period came to £275 million (\$1,101 million), or slightly less than 40 per cent above the original estimates. In the debates in the House of Commons on these increases, it was pointed out that the original estimates were made several months before the actual salary scales were determined, but most of the increase was due to a much heavier demand in some branches of the service than had been anticipated.<sup>20</sup> More than half of it was due to dental and optical costs, where the original estimates were determined largely on what seems to me an unrealistic basis, namely, the amount of optical and dental services rendered under the old National Health Insur-

<sup>17</sup> *British Medical Journal*, April 16, 1949.

<sup>18</sup> "The Act in Action: The General Practitioner" (see n. 9, above).

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>20</sup> *Parliamentary Debates*, February 17, 1949.



ance scheme, where these benefits were narrowly restricted.<sup>21</sup>

The estimates for the first full fiscal year—1949–50—are £352 million (\$1,408 million), of which £268 million (\$1,072 million) will be a direct charge on the national Exchequer. The London *Economist* pointed out last March,<sup>22</sup> when this estimate was announced, that it is at a lower rate than the cost for the first nine months, since these early months included certain nonrecurring items, such as the financial liabilities of the hospitals which were transferred to the Ministry of Health when the service began. Also, expenditures in the pharmaceutical and ophthalmic services are expected to be at a lower rate during the present year, since the backlog of demand in these services is expected to be met in the current fiscal year. The estimate for 1949–50 represents about 3.6 per cent of the British national income.<sup>23</sup>

Whether this sum is an excessive amount, beyond the ability of Great Britain to afford, can hardly be answered on the basis of the first nine

<sup>21</sup> Dental and optical benefits under the National Health Insurance Act of 1911 were granted only to limited numbers of those who were insured. The act was jointly administered by the Ministry of Health and by private insurance companies and "friendly societies" approved for the purpose. While all who were insured received the statutory medical benefits, namely, general practitioners' services, only certain friendly societies were in a financial position to offer additional benefits and, of those, not all granted additional benefits in the form of optical or dental services. There were also other deterring factors. For example, there was a general requirement that, if a dentist provided any treatment, he had to provide all that was necessary in order to render the recipient completely fit. Also, workers were required to pay half the cost of the treatment. The result was that only a small number—estimated at about 7 per cent—of those eligible for such benefits took advantage of them.

<sup>22</sup> *Economist*, March 26, 1949.

<sup>23</sup> The national income of Great Britain in 1948 was £9,675 million.

months of operation or on the basis that the cost was substantially above the estimate for that period. The cost of the National Health Service is not a net increase, since a considerable proportion of this sum was being paid by the nation for health services and for the care of the indigent sick prior to inauguration of the new program. In the final analysis, the cost of the National Health Service is a charge on the productive capacity of the country. If it eventually reduces the cost of production by conserving the nation's manpower and increasing industrial output, as many believe it will, the investment will then be economically justified. But, whether it will or not can hardly be determined for some time to come.

#### SUMMARY

Early reviews of a new program such as the British National Health Service necessarily dwell on the major problems which have emerged, and I have tried to touch on those most widely discussed. Most of these difficulties were anticipated before the National Health Service came into operation, and it was generally well understood in Britain that many of them would have to be worked out over a period of time. Now, after several months, the great majority of those associated with the new service still believe that these difficulties can be remedied and that there is no inherent reason why the National Health Service will not eventually function smoothly. It is significant that there is no indication that Britain is considering abolishing its comprehensive medical-care program, regardless of what political party is elected in 1950, for the nation remains firmly convinced of the need for it, of its benefit, and of its workability.

Many of the gloomy predictions

made before the National Health Service began have not materialized. There are no complaints of clinical interference by the government in medical practice; the doctor-patient relationship still remains undisturbed; the incentives of the medical profession have not been destroyed; the transfer of the hospitals to the Ministry of Health has gone smoothly, and many believe that the hospitals in Britain have been given new life and scope; the numbers of those seeking admission to the country's medical schools have not diminished—if anything, they have increased; and, above all, more people are receiving medical care, or better medical care, than was thought possible heretofore.

With reference to what we can learn from British experience thus far, as to whether or not compulsory health insurance can work in the United States,

I think a good answer was given by this paragraph in a dispatch to the *New York Times* written early this year by Herbert Matthews, chief of its London bureau:

American critics or champions who look across the Atlantic for arguments to oppose or support President Truman's plan to introduce compulsory health insurance will find whatever they are seeking. The American Medical Association will be able to produce a mass of testimony from British doctors on how badly the scheme is working. Conversely, the Federal Security Administration should be able to compile a still more formidable body of testimony from patients, druggists, dentists and many doctors to prove that a nation of nearly fifty million can take care of the health of every man, woman and child from teething to senility.<sup>24</sup>

HEALTH AND WELFARE COUNCIL, INC.  
PHILADELPHIA

<sup>24</sup>Herbert L. Matthews, "Report on Britain's Cradle-to-Grave Plan," *New York Times Magazine*, January 9, 1949.

## AN ANALYSIS OF THE STRUCTURE AND PRACTICE OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK TODAY<sup>1</sup>

MILDRED SIKKEMA

FOR many years an increasingly large number of people have had a deep and lasting conviction that there is no area in our culture where social work can make so great a contribution to the mental health of the people of our country as it can in the public schools. I share that conviction.

Case-work service with children in school and with their parents is the core of the contribution of the school social worker. Equally important, however, is the opportunity, *through a teamwork relationship—an interprofessional relationship*<sup>2</sup>—to help teachers and school administrators *implement* in the classroom and in school administration a more meaningful understanding of human behavior. I say “implement” here because, although teachers and school personnel have long availed themselves of opportunities to learn the meaning of human behavior, they have had little help in learning how to translate this understanding into practice in curriculum-formulation and planning, in the classroom group process, or in school administration. The social worker, *as a member of the school faculty*, can offer unique assistance to help meet this important need as the educational process moves from teaching subject matter to teaching children.

<sup>1</sup> Read at the National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, Ohio, June, 1949.

<sup>2</sup> Grace Mitchell, “Teacher and School Social Worker: A Study of Professional Inter-Relationship” (a Master’s thesis written in 1945 at the University of Minnesota School of Social Work).

International, national, state, and local groups are placing more and more emphasis on the preventive aspects of mental health in the school experience. First, the school reaches all children. Second, problems which are interfering with children’s use of the school living-and-learning experience can be located and remedied in their incipiency. Third, children or families requiring some other type of service, such as child-placing or general assistance, may be referred before there is added damage resulting from long duration of problems.

I have divided the assignment into three sections: first, an examination of how and why school social work programs are developing, including a discussion of personnel qualifications and of training needs and how they are being met; second, a consideration of the place of school social work within the organization of the school system itself; third, a review of some aspects of practice in school social work.

### CURRENT DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Citizen interest in such programs is strong. The California State PTA offers training stipends for training in psychiatric social work and training for social work in the children’s field, including school social work. Individuals using these stipends are pledged to accept employment in children’s agencies or in school systems, following training. One

state board of the American Association of University Women resolved that each of its thirty-four chapters would devote one meeting this year to the study of school social work and proposed state legislation for providing such programs. Governors' commissions and delinquency groups have appointed committees to study the need for such service in the school. A youth commission is underwriting a school social work program in one school system; a state mental health authority has provided a similar demonstration in another and scholarships for training for school social workers in still another.

Conviction of the value of such service has been demonstrated through state legislation now effective in Louisiana, Georgia, Virginia, Maryland, Michigan, Illinois, and Puerto Rico. Since this paper was written, Texas has passed the Gilmer-Aiken Bill, one portion of which provides state funds for visiting-teacher programs throughout the state. Simultaneously with the expansion of the work through state legislation is the expansion at local, city, county, or school-district levels. Many boards of education are financing their own school social work programs. A number have grown out of former attendance programs. Some stem from the school's concern for meeting needs of children through a good school experience. Others had their origin in community concern about delinquency and in an effort to compensate for lacks in services for children within the community. We do not believe that provision of all services is the function of the school, but we cannot fail to recognize the school's concern with the lack of service and with the responsibility for bringing this to community attention.

What are some of the recognized needs now being met through a school social work service in some of the states? Georgia focused attention first on its need to help thousands of parents and children to a belief that education is a basic right in our culture. The Georgia act states that, in addition to working on problems of attendance, visiting teachers shall "discharge such other duties as are usually performed by or delegated to visiting teachers." Today it is the "such other duties" that engage the attention of many of the visiting teachers in Georgia.

The Michigan Visiting Teacher Act resulted from a concern for delinquent and predelinquent children and for those who have personality problems resulting in social maladjustment. The Illinois law provides for a preventive service for children in school who need particular help in social and emotional adjustment.

In general, the law in each state provides for varying amounts of state participation with the local school unit in financing the program. Responsibility for state administration of the program is lodged usually with the director of a subdivision in the state department of education. Local school units participate with the state in defining duties and responsibilities, but the state director carries over-all responsibility for interpretation and broad definition of the service. Within this framework individual schools identify problems and needs which may be specific to their own locality.

One state has had a state consultant for the visiting-teacher program since its inception; another state has established such a position and has been trying for a year to find a well-qualified social worker. The state visiting-teacher

association in a third state has requested such a consultant.

#### PERSONNEL QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

Provision of qualified personnel in both state and local programs remains a real problem. Variations in state requirements of education and experience create some difficulty. All states are requiring some courses in social work, and some are identifying this as the kind of training necessary or desirable. Some states also require teaching experience or an emergency type of teacher's certificate. One requires a Master's degree in education together with a certain number of hours of credit from a school of social work. Another state has indicated the most desirable qualifications as a Master's degree in social work, preferably with training in school social work. Local city or rural school systems usually require the equivalent of at least one full year of social work training, and some require a Master's degree in social work as well as experience in a children's case-work agency.

The United States Office of Education has given leadership and direction in relation to certification of school social workers. The published report of the conference called by the Commissioner of Education in Washington in June, 1945,<sup>3</sup> made suggestions for certification of visiting teachers or school social workers, including a minimum certificate, a standard certificate, and a professional certificate.

Partially because of the demand for personnel and the scarcity of people with training, states and cities are employing various means of training personnel. The University of Georgia plans

a seven-week workshop each summer for visiting teachers, with the leadership of a school social worker. This year there will be both a beginning and an advanced workshop. An institute was financed last summer by the Illinois State Department of Education, and there will be another this summer. Virginia and Michigan hold institutes for visiting teachers at regular intervals. Philadelphia, with 217 people now in this service, provided an organized in-service training to meet its need; half of each person's time during the entire first year of employment is devoted to in-service training in social work.

This problem of training poses a question which schools of social work are asked to consider seriously. There exists a very real unmet need. A number of schools of social work are helping to meet the need. Most schools are using all training facilities available. About fifty students are currently having a field-work placement in a school setting. Facilities for an additional fifteen to twenty students will be available this fall.

A number of schools of social work, such as Denver, Tulane, Our Lady of the Lake, and Illinois, offer summer sessions for individuals interested in beginning training. The Division of Social Service, Indiana University, has for several summers provided a ten-week field placement which has served to interest individuals in planning for leaves-of-absence to complete social work training. The School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, has a work-study plan which makes training possible for some people who are already employed. The Nashville School of Social Work has experimented this year with a training unit in the demonstration school of the Peabody Teacher Training Institu-

<sup>3</sup> *Visiting Teacher Services* (Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Leaflet No. 75, 1946).



tion. Such a plan obviously has some lacks but also some splendid possibilities for enriching the preservice training of teachers, as well as for training people in school social work.

Significant and valuable assistance is provided by the co-operation of the American Association of Schools of Social Work in accepting official responsibility for the accrediting process for school social work training. This is important because state departments of education are concerned with certification of school social workers. Several states, such as Ohio, New Jersey, Connecticut, Minnesota, and Puerto Rico, have certification requirements; other states are considering such requirements.

At Indiana University and the University of Illinois the schools of social work and the schools of education have jointly worked out an undergraduate curriculum in the school of education which gives a provisional teacher's certificate enabling students to meet academic requirements for admission to the school of social work. In the plan the social work field placement in the school is accepted as a substitute for the practice-teaching requirement. This has particular value because (1) interest is being shown by people in schools of education both in having the teaching certificate and in taking social work training and (2) a number of states continue to require some type of teacher's certificate, as well as social work training, for social workers in the schools. The Connecticut Board of Education is now accepting the nine months' social work field-work placement in the public school as a substitute for the teaching requirement.

This, then, in abbreviated fashion, is

a survey of the current development of social work in the schools and of personnel-training problems.

#### ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

What is taking place in school social work in its administrative organization within the school itself? You will agree that one important factor contributing to the effectiveness of social case-work service in the school is determined by administrative organization. Various services and types of educational help have been added in the school without careful consideration of how they might best be integrated and thus be most useful to the child in school and to school personnel. School social work is one of the recently added services.

Schools today feel the need for the social worker to be a member of the school faculty or school system in order to achieve maximum effectiveness of the service in the total school program. Schools are likewise alert to the relation of structure to the usefulness of a service. There is re-examination now of where the service belongs in the school organization.

Involved in relationships with children, in addition to the teacher and the principal, there may be a curriculum supervisor, a teacher supervisor, a special-education supervisor, a nurse, a psychologist, a psychiatrist, an attendance worker, and a social worker. Frequently in the secondary schools there may also be an educational and vocational counselor, a class adviser, a boys' and a girls' adviser, and sometimes a dean. Obviously, duplication and overlapping of effort and dissipation of the energy of the child, teacher, and parent result unless there is some co-ordination of special services, special education, and instructional staffs.

Increasingly we find special services being co-ordinated under one director in the larger city school systems. Various plans are being tried. With such co-ordination taking place, there is recognized need for careful study and clarification of the role and function of each service. In the small school system where there is only one school social worker, it is also important that the social worker, as well as the school, reach clarity in understanding the contribution of this service. Otherwise, he may become a chore boy, carrying various odd responsibilities rather than giving a skilled service in which he has competence.

It should be of concern that in the process of co-ordination we safeguard the need to keep our service close to the teacher and to the principal. The teacher uses the social worker to supplement her work. To provide an effective case-work service in the school, the social worker and the teacher must have easy and clearly established procedures for working together. The school social worker is attempting to help the child resolve those problems that have made it impossible for him to find his place in, and to use, the classroom experience. The social worker cannot succeed without the teacher and the principal.<sup>4</sup>

At least one other area of administrative organization should be mentioned. In social work we recognize the value of a particular use of supervision which is not necessarily characteristic of other professions. What we believe is accomplished in supervision has required a great deal of interpretation to school administrators in setting up a structure for the school social work program. School administrators in some cities are

beginning to identify the need in this service for supervisors with social work training, and many have employed such supervisors.

#### PRACTICE IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Now, what of some aspects of practice? One approach to an examination of some aspects of practice in school social work is to ask what the needs are that schools have identified as being met by this service. A study of reasons for referral in a number of schools reveals that the school identifies behavior problems as those that interfere with the child's school experience. The statement of referral deals primarily with the symptoms of a problem shown in the classroom. As the school social worker works with these problems, it becomes evident that they are the expression of problems and needs clearly identifiable as those which are traditionally met by social case-work service.

With the growing emphasis upon inclusion of child development as a part of teacher training, teachers are much more aware that all types of behavior have meaning. That teachers are aware of difficulties earlier and seek help earlier is also evident. In contrast to some of the beginning developments, where the school social work service began or was scheduled primarily in secondary schools, today we have the service in both elementary and secondary schools, with concentration on its use at the elementary level as a factor in the preventive mental-health aspects of the educational process.

What kinds of referrals are made to the school social worker? In kindergartens and elementary schools where the program has been in existence long enough so that some clarification and

<sup>4</sup>Helen Palmeter, "The Child-in-School and the Helping Team," *Bulletin of the National Association of School Social Workers*, June, 1949.

definition has been possible, it has been determined that the greatest number of referrals is for behavior and personality difficulties in relation to school adjustment.

In secondary schools, beginning with the intermediate school, the greatest number of referrals is usually for attendance problems. Many of these referrals reflect an understanding that the child who is not attending or who is a truant from school is expressing a symptom of difficulty just as the child who daydreams presents a symptom, and that both require specialized skilled help.

In one intermediate school the school social worker concentrated for an entire year on attendance, since a widespread truancy problem was affecting the morale of the whole student body. Out of the total of eighty-seven chronic truants, 76 per cent were making a good adjustment to school at the end of the year. A good adjustment meant, not only a change in the attitude and feeling of the child about himself and about school and his responsibility in relation to it, but often some help from the home. It meant considerable help from the teachers in curriculum-planning, resulting in changes of attitudes about, and interest in, the pupils. Such results of a case-work approach to this problem have broad mental-health implications in our total educational process.

A third common type of referral is the child who has academic difficulties, with social adjustment involved. It should be pointed out that the school social worker does not carry administrative responsibility for educational placement decisions and does not teach or tutor but is concerned with educational placement as it contributes to or

helps to alleviate social and emotional problems. Occasionally in a newly established service the school social worker may be used inappropriately in this area. This brings out again the ever present need for defining areas of competence.

Just one other common type of referral will be mentioned here—that of parental neglect. We do find the school social worker carrying a certain responsibility for protective services for children.<sup>5</sup>

This brief examination of the four most common types of referrals to the school social worker indicates that the school is using the competence of the case worker appropriately.

Referral of child and family to agencies in the community offering a service different from that of the school is also usually recognized as a part of the work of the school social worker. There is still confusion in this area. In some school systems where the social work staff is untrained and therefore is not able to offer a case-work service, a good many children and families are being referred to community agencies, often for help which these agencies are unable to give and which the child or family may be unable to use because the child has placed his problem in the school. In school systems where the staff is adequately trained, the school offers the case-work service with the child and parent in relation to problems focused in the child's school adjustment, and the referral to other community agencies is for a particular service, such as child-placing, marital counseling, etc.

A review of the literature in school

<sup>5</sup> Jane Wille, "The Relation of the School to Protective Services for Children," *Bulletin of the National Association of School Social Workers*, June, 1949.

social work shows that attention is being given to the need for clarification of function. This is also noted in the increasing number of institutes planned by school social work groups to study and define their contribution in the school and community.

Statistics show that in many schools the greatest portion of work of the school social worker today is through the professional interrelationships with teachers and principals. Through this channel may come modification within the whole educational process. Further delineation of the process in professional interrelationships and of its values is indicated.

Attention is being given officially to definition, clarification, and refinement of the contribution of the school social work service and to its more effective integration into the total school program. Inevitably, in establishing new programs we must expect that there will be an exploration and a testing-out by the school of ways in which the service can be used most effectively. During such an exploration and testing period it is important that the school social worker understand the need which led the school to establish the service and that he offer some service in relation

to this recognized need. At the same time he must attempt to clarify which needs can best be served through the competence which he brings as well as to help the school develop other means of meeting the remainder of the needs.

This type of statement concerning the status of school social work today is inadequate. Each of the three parts—the development of the field, including the problems of training personnel, the integration of the service with the organization of the school system, and a review of some aspects of practice—requires thorough documentation.

A single significant strength of social work in the school lies in its availability in the regular, daily living experience of *all* children. A second strength is the unique opportunity of the school social worker to work as a member of the faculty with other professional and policy-making persons in a large social institution toward modification of the educational process. Both are important considerations in the contribution of social case work to the mental health of our children.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF  
SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS  
NEW YORK

## AN ANALYSIS OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK<sup>1</sup>

FLORENCE POOLE

**I**N THE history and development of social work certain periods stand out which mark particular progress and which point in the direction of new and significant developments. I believe that, at the present time, the field of school social work has reached such a period. The recent interest evidenced by the schools themselves, which has led to a rapid expansion in this field, represents a development which holds great importance for the total profession of social work. Recent legislation, which provides for and insures social work in the schools as a school service, holds a potential for the development of one of the largest public social services for children in this country.

It is not possible to overestimate the value which our culture has placed on the education of children or the sincerity of purpose which the American people have invested in the public schools and other educational institutions. This has been evidenced at the national and state level in legislation providing for school support, compulsory attendance, and the establishment of educational standards. It is also apparent in local communities through citizen participation on boards of education, parent-teacher associations, and numerous other educational organizations. Social work, as a recognized service within this setting, becomes a part of this large investment of public faith

and purpose. At the present time we no longer see social work as a service appended to the schools. We see one of our most significant social institutions establishing social work as an integral part of its service essential to the carrying-out of its purpose. We recognize a clarity in the definition of the service as a social work service. We find educators turning to the profession of social work for personnel and for leadership in this important development. As social workers we cannot fail to be thoughtful about our responsibility in meeting this request for leadership and assistance coming from one of our largest public institutions. We cannot fail to recognize that this particular field of social work demands our concern and our attention.

The importance in this development is not to be found in its scope alone. Social work offered in a school setting has great significance because of the very nature of the service. This is a service extended to all children, of varying ages, in a setting which is of vital importance to them. The meaning of the school experience to the child is such that it has an important bearing on his total life-adjustment. When the child encounters difficulty in school, he can gain from social work service a way of taking responsibility for meeting this difficulty that will have a definite effect on the use that he will make of his school experience, which, for him, is an important part of his life-experience. As we see children work through difficult

<sup>1</sup> Read at the National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, Ohio, June, 1949.



problems with the school social worker, we cannot with scientific accuracy assess the "preventive" aspect of such work, but we must be impressed with the strength which emerges on the part of the child through participation in such an experience.

In the school the child can learn the nature and value of social work in a setting that is known and accepted. It becomes a part of his educational experience, along with the school doctor, school nurse, and the psychologist. He has an opportunity to learn about and to use social work service in a way that is meaningful to him as part of his own setting and in relation to problems which are of great concern to him. He sees social work as an accepted part of his daily living, taking its rightful place with other services which help him to achieve his goal. This is important in relation not only to individual service but also to the effect it has on the attitudes of school children about social work. Comments of children and articles about school social work published in school papers reflect a respect for social work which may be looked upon as a significant achievement by the total profession.

As we examine characteristics of social work pertaining specifically to *practice* within the school setting, we find that particular skills are required on the part of the worker which may not be needed to the same degree in social agencies established primarily for offering social work service. These skills, however, are not peculiar to social work in the school; they are common to social work in other settings, such as hospitals and courts, in which the primary purpose is not that of offering social work service. They have to do with under-

standing and representing the purpose of the setting and with relating social work to the contributions of other disciplines within the setting.

The school social worker carries the primary responsibility for the social work service in the school. In order to offer a service that has validity in this setting, she must understand and accept the function of the school. She must be able to determine which needs within the school can be appropriately met through social work service. She must be able to develop a method of offering the service which will fit in with the general organization and structure of the school but which is identifiable as one requiring social work knowledge and skill. She must be able to define the service and her contribution in such a way that the school personnel can accept it as a service which contributes to the major purpose of the school.

In addition to defining the particular contribution of social work to the school, the worker must take a major responsibility for co-ordinating her work with that of all the professional disciplines represented in the school. The school social worker is part of a working relationship which has often been referred to as the "team relationship." In the school the teacher, doctor, nurse, psychologist, social worker, and, possibly, others, practicing within their own disciplines, work together to help the child achieve the maximum benefit from his school experience. Relating the contributions of several disciplines, operating in one setting, in such a way that the client has a feeling of a whole and unified kind of help which is meaningful to him, requires on the part of each of the representatives of these disciplines the ability to participate actively in the co-

ordination and integration of all services. The school social worker must understand and respect the contributions of other professions and be able to relate her own practice to theirs in a dynamic and effective manner.

The school social worker, as a member of the school staff, also participates with the administration and other staff members in developing the program of the school and in helping to formulate policies and procedures. In assuming a role in this area, it is important that she identify the specific contribution which she can responsibly make through her professional competence. It is also important that she recognize the contribution of other professions and that she accept and be able to represent the programs and policies developed through co-operative planning.

In the practice of social case work in the schools there are, at the present time, some differences related primarily to the administrative structure in which the social worker is placed. In some schools the worker is part of a child-guidance clinic which offers psychiatric treatment to children in the school. In some schools she is in the attendance department, carrying, among other responsibilities, the legal enforcement of the attendance law. In other schools the service is related to guidance and may include vocational counseling. Although this difference in responsibility may affect to some degree the emphasis of the work, the focus remains much the same: helping the child to use his school experience in a way that will be of maximum benefit to him. The process through which this is achieved by the school social worker is the social case-work process.

Regardless of variations in emphasis,

certain principles of social case work apply in all school social work. The school social worker offers a service which is designed to help an individual who is experiencing some difficulty in his social situation—the school. She recognizes his right and capacity to attempt to do something about this difficulty. She offers the professional skill of social case work to help him in his endeavor. In order to offer effective service, it is important that the school social worker examine each aspect of her work to determine the essentials in the relationship and in the service that have meaning in the setting in which she works. She must be aware of the kinds of problems which people may have in relation to the school setting. She must use her understanding of people and her knowledge of social case-work method in helping with these problems. Her work will be with children, parents, teachers and other school personnel, as well as with other social agencies. In each relationship there are elements which must be recognized and understood, if her work is to fulfil its purpose.

Social case work with the child in school has certain characteristics that are specific to the setting and that must be understood and related to the generic principles of the social case-work process. The school is a setting which, to the child, is very much his own and one in which he is very much on his own. He assumes a major part of the responsibility for the use which he will make of his school experience. When he encounters some difficulty in this setting, the worker helps him to take responsibility in solving it. She helps him to understand the difficulty as it appears to the school and to clarify the problem as it exists for him. Throughout the

process her work with the child is directed toward helping him in his attempt to work on the part of the problem for which he can appropriately take responsibility.

The relationship may be complicated by the fact that the worker is part of the setting. She represents the purpose and opportunities of the school, as well as the authority and the rules established within that authority. Her role, however, is different from that of other school personnel. She cannot pass or fail him. She cannot enforce or deliver him from the rules of the school. Through use of the social case-work process she helps him with the problem that he may be having with these or other aspects of his school experience.

These characteristics of social case work with the child in the school are specific to the setting. They represent problems that require, on the part of the worker, a knowledge of and ability to use basic social case-work principles and method. They also point up the need for using principles and method in a way that takes into consideration the specifics that are inherent in the setting.

Another area of the school social worker's practice is work with parents. Although all workers recognize the importance of the parent in any help that is given to a child, sometimes real confusion is shown in the defining of how the school social worker is to work with the parent. We find the worker talking with the parent "to get a better understanding of the child" or "telling the parent what is wrong" or in some vague way "building better school-home relationships." If the school social worker is to work effectively with the parent, it is essential that she examine carefully

just what is involved in that working relationship. Work with the parent is an integral part of helping the child. The worker works with the parent to help him with those problems that he encounters as the parent-of-a-child-in-school. The method of helping is through social case work, and principles of the social case-work process apply. Because the parent has usually not sought help from the school social worker and knows little or nothing about the service, it is essential that the worker take responsibility for defining her purpose and for explaining the way in which she works. In addition to discussing with the parent the problem as it appears in school and explaining the nature of the work that she is doing with the child, she must establish with the parent areas in which she and the parent can appropriately work together. This will necessitate examining the responsibilities involved in being the parent-of-a-child-in-school and the problems that may inhere in meeting that responsibility adequately. The parent must have an opportunity to look at these problems in his own way and to determine what kind of help he needs, if any, in attempting to solve them. It is important that the relationship with the parent be seen as a continuing, helpful relationship. The parent has a right to know, as it progresses, about the work that is being done with the child. He should be given an opportunity throughout the process to receive from the worker help with his own part in working with his child.

Some of the problems which the parents identify as affecting the child in school may be of such a nature that the school cannot offer appropriate help; for example, financial problems, need for medical care, or foster-home place-

ment. In such instances the school social worker helps the parent to use the appropriate agency. This does not, however, mean that the school social worker's job with the parent is primarily one of referral or that it ends with referral. While the parent receives help with certain family problems from another agency, the school social worker will continue to offer service in relation to the child-in-school as long as a problem exists in this area.

A third important aspect of school social work practice is work with the teacher. The teacher's relationship to the child must be recognized as of primary importance. Her teaching responsibility in the school is the core of the entire work of the school. Her function is that of helping children to acquire knowledge and to develop certain attitudes and skills. Her perspective must be the total classroom. In meeting her responsibilities she will use the services of other disciplines. These special services will supplement and enrich her contribution, but they cannot take over or negate her role in the school. The school social worker must understand and accept the nature of the teacher's responsibilities and must identify ways in which her own particular skill can help the teacher to meet those responsibilities more adequately.

Work with the teacher usually begins at the time of referral. It is at this time that the teacher has an opportunity to discuss with the worker her concern about the child in relation to the school. It is at this time, also, that the worker explains to the teacher the nature of the worker's service in the school and the way in which she will be working with the child and his parent. This is an opportunity for her to clarify her re-

sponsibility as different from that of the teacher but closely related to and supplementing it. The social worker cannot "take over" the problem but will be helping the child with part of it. The teacher's work with the child will be important throughout the process. For this reason, it is essential that a definite and continuing working relationship with the teacher be established—definite in terms of time and content. Throughout the process the teacher and the worker need to look together at the progress which the child is making. Each may gain understanding of the child and of the problem from the other, but each must take responsibility for using this understanding appropriately in relation to his own function. It is very easy for social workers, especially for those who have been teachers, to fall into the role of advising the teacher about classroom procedure with certain children. When this happens, the social worker has failed to recognize the essence of the "team" relationship. In this relationship it is essential that each member of the team, using the contributions of the other members, integrate these contributions but maintain responsibility for his own professional use of them in offering his own service. It is only through clear definition of the service of each of the disciplines that the team relationship becomes not duplication or competition but an enrichment of services for the client.

This principle will guide not only the relationship of the worker and the teacher but the worker's relationship with members of other disciplines in the school. True co-ordination and integration implies administrative structure which makes such practice possible. In many schools the principal assumes

leadership in establishing channels for co-ordination. In other schools some other person may take this responsibility. The school social worker must be aware of the need for such channels and may participate in helping the school to establish a method for co-ordination.

This analysis of some of the characteristics of school social work is far from complete. In a field that is growing and developing we still have much to examine and much to learn. At the present time we can affirm the service as we

know it—a social case-work service offered to children in the school setting. We can examine ways in which the service can be integrated into the schools and can help them to fulfil their purpose. We can recognize that the nature of the service and the nature of the setting have an inherent value which has great significance for the purpose and practice of the total field of education and the total social work profession.

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK  
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

#### DISCUSSION OF THE ARTICLES ON SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK BY MILDRED SIKKEMA AND FLORENCE POOLE<sup>1</sup>

GRACE BROWNING

As an educator in the field of social work it seems important to comment first of all on the great contribution which the National Association of School Social Workers has made in offering consultative services to departments of school social work, to state offices of education, and to the schools of social work during the past few years. The progress reported here in the development of educational and service programs is remarkable. Three or four years ago, when our efforts were beginning at Indiana University, almost nothing seemed available in any central place concerning plans and standards in the new programs that were developing in the various jurisdictions.

The genesis of school social work as a visiting-teacher movement has certain real and lasting implications for schools of social work. The failure of the liberal arts colleges to train teachers resulted in the separate development of teachers' colleges and, within the university structure, in the creation of the schools of education. State control of teacher-licensing has had a real impact on curriculum in these teacher-training institutions. Likewise, the influence on state educational policies as they affect the public schools is wielded to a much greater extent by the faculties of the teachers'

colleges than by the faculties of the arts colleges and of the graduate schools, with which schools of social work have been more closely associated.

The training of teachers has remained to a considerable extent on an undergraduate and one-year graduate level. In some schools of education, methods courses have crowded out much of the liberal arts content that would seem desirable for teachers if education is to be a social process. Many persons in the field of general education have not been too happy about the results and are inclined to attribute some of the shortcomings of the secondary schools to the narrow vocational training of teachers and administrative officers who have been graduated from the teachers' colleges. They have realized almost too late that general education and teacher-training have been too widely separated.

Dr. Conant, president of Harvard University, has said that "in the past the psychologists more than other members of the usual college faculty have been interested in the problems of the schools; they have worked with and in the schools of education. . . ."<sup>2</sup> He believes that other disciplines should follow this pattern—

<sup>1</sup> James Bryant Conant, *Education in a Divided World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948), pp. 147-48.

<sup>2</sup> Read at the National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, Ohio, June, 1949.



that a bridge must be built between them and the schools of education.

Bearing in mind the way in which the liberal arts colleges abdicated their responsibility and permitted the separatist traditions of the normal schools to succeed to the responsibility for the training of teachers, I have sincerely hoped that we would not make the same mistake in the preparation of social workers for the schools. Unless the schools of social work which are located in areas where the school social work programs are on the move are imaginative and interested, we will find an increasing number of schools of education and teachers' colleges offering training for this field.

The solution is not easy. The work, to which Miss Sikkema has referred, of formulating sound preprofessional curriculums for persons interested in preparing for school social work is one way in which we can begin to build a bridge between social work and education. Licensing requirements in some states are now so specific that it is difficult to find enough electives that the student may take in the arts college to meet even minimum requirements of a concentration in the social sciences; but, if the schools of education and the schools of social work are interested, it can usually be done. Miss Sikkema has mentioned plans under which the student may take his degree in the school of education; but we are even more pleased that he may take his degree in the college of arts and sciences, if he prefers to do so, while earning his teacher's license and fulfilling the requirements of a preprofessional curriculum in social work. Incidentally, we find that some students who start out in education become interested in social work through an introduction to the field in the preprofessional courses.

School social work bears the imprint of its close association with teacher-training in several ways other than the tendency to require courses in education and/or a teacher's license. The pattern which teachers have followed of acquiring all or most of their graduate education during summer sessions, without leaves-of-absence or loss of salary, makes it more difficult to set or enforce higher requirements for social workers in the schools. Many of the older school social workers were able to attend schools of social work for a summer quarter occasionally, and to have field work included, until they had accumulated credits enough to qualify for salary increases. Sometimes this work was spread among several schools of social

work so that a pleasant new travel experience could be combined with study. (Again the pattern of teacher education.) This pattern does not easily fit into the increasing requirements for full-time study and extended periods of field work in the schools of social work today.

As schools of social work have shifted to the two-year Master's degree, the time has been doubled over the time required for a Master's degree in education or in the various departments of the graduate schools. Therefore, in any school system which does not specify as part of its requirements that graduate study for its social workers shall have been in social work, there is every inducement to take a short-cut degree in education or psychology rather than to incur the greater expense and difficulty of qualifying for the two-year Master of Social Work degree. Yet, the conscientious worker, given a glimpse of what social work has to offer, soon realizes that her identification should be with social work and that that is where she will get the skill to deal with the difficult problems referred to her.

There is, unfortunately, a serious dearth of scholarships that may be used for the training of social workers for the public schools. Without scholarships that will facilitate remaining in residence in a school of social work for at least a year, there are many problems in devising ways of meeting the need of the school social worker for professional education.

I should like to suggest here that the professional associations have a responsibility to influence the setting of personnel qualifications for new workers in the schools and to work toward interpreting to boards of education the need to require preparation in social work as new workers are employed. Certainly, we must be on guard in any state that is moving toward licensing school social workers to see that requirements are realistic but that they do include graduate study in social work.

The structure within the school system has tremendous importance to a school of social work in planning field work. The pattern which has been mentioned of bringing special services together under one head may result in administrative control being vested in an administrator whose training has been entirely in the field of education. There may be a natural tendency for him to pour each service under his direction into the mold that has developed for handling instructional problems. It is not easy to interpret the differences between the objectives and

methods of practice teaching and those of field work. On the other hand, if responsibility for actual administration of the case-work service is delegated to a social worker, such a structure may facilitate co-operation among the various special services, and the pattern of co-operation with schools of education for training purposes may set a precedent for co-operation with schools of social work.

The structure of school social work, complicated at best, has implications for the selection of students who are to be placed in the school setting. We have thought that it is not a suitable field-work placement for beginning students unless a given student has had experience. Otherwise, the placement should be used for advanced students who have had preferably two semesters of field work in another community agency. The nature of the referrals which are made to the school social worker, as outlined by Miss Sikkema, also indicates that it is a field more suitable for the placement of advanced students than beginning students.

There is, of course, a great scarcity of field-work instructors who meet the standards of schools of social work and who are free enough of other responsibilities to be available for field supervision. Yet, if the school social worker is really to function in a preventive mental-health program, her field work should be of the highest quality, and there should be no lowering of standards in order to maintain field-work placements in the schools.

The setting of some standards relating to field work by the committee that has been concerned with the accrediting of preparation for school social work is most helpful. Also, the work that has been done in planning for accrediting curriculums through the American Association of Schools of Social Work by the membership organization is forward looking. Their emphasis has been on a sound basic curriculum and is far better than the way in which elaborate specializations have sometimes in the past been ingrafted on the curriculums of schools that were fundamentally weak.

There seems to be a need for much more thought with reference to what should be taught to students concerning the educational setting. In the struggle to differentiate case work from teaching, testing, guidance, and other functions, considerable study should be given to what the case worker really needs to

know about teaching and about administration of elementary and secondary education as a part of his preprofessional and professional education and to how and where it should be taught.

The significance of an assignment such as the one Miss Poole has so ably handled is a very real contribution to those who are concerned with problems of curriculums as well as to practitioners. It has implications also for those concerned with education and with the practice of case work in any setting where teamwork with other disciplines is involved. I should like to emphasize the contribution that could be made by some research into the characteristics of school social work, medical social work, social work in the courts, and in other settings where the social worker is part of a professional team, with a view to identifying those characteristics that are generic to all such settings and those that are specific for only one. A paper such as Miss Poole's, which is so clear in delineating the focus of a case-work service in the schools, is a genuine contribution to the field, since social workers in many school systems have been quite isolated from colleagues and since such varied practices have developed. When function is not clear, it adds to the confusion of the untrained or partially trained worker as to whether his advanced studies should be in guidance, in personnel, in psychology, or in some other field. It sometimes results in extremely heavy loads of work that are not essentially case work and it tends to influence promising young case workers to seek positions in agencies where the job is clearly defined and is focused as a case-work service.

Although schools of social work are at present trying to be all things to all people, the field of school social work is so vitally important that it should claim its share of attention from practitioner groups and from the schools of social work. Because it is a field so important to our total community services, we must find ways to help elevate standards and to provide more training opportunities than exist at present. We must also make every effort to bring the personnel working within the school structure and performing social work services into a close identification with social work. Let's build the bridge!

DIVISION OF SOCIAL SERVICE  
INDIANA UNIVERSITY

## TEAMWORK TOWARD MENTAL HEALTH

LEOPOLD LIPPMAN

ENGINEERS, social scientists, and and philosophers have been struggling for years with one of the dilemmas of our age: the trend toward superspecialization. In both the physical and the social sciences the body of existing knowledge has grown so rapidly during the past century that few people can even begin to know all of it; the resulting tendency to specialize in a portion of the field has segmented human knowledge and, in a measure, hampered scientific advancement.

One solution to the apparent conflict between specialization and integration, at least in the field of medical care, is group practice. Now, in the Pacific Northwest, the principle is being applied to the area of mental health and with most interesting results.

Team practice among psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers is, of course, nothing new in the United States. The Menninger Clinic at Topeka pioneered more than two decades ago, and the concept of co-operative professional service to the individual has been carried out in public child-guidance clinics, in the United States Army during the war, and by the Veterans Administration since the war ended.

Nevertheless, the Northwest Clinic of Psychiatry and Neurology is the first attempt in a large city to apply the Menninger principle of team practice in psychiatry under private auspices. In the three years since the Northwest Clinic was established in Seattle, Washington, a ferment has started which is beginning to leaven psychiatric practice in the Pa-

cific Northwest region and which may ultimately raise the level of service throughout the whole country. It is particularly interesting that this development should be occurring in a state which formerly was seriously underserved in the matter of psychiatric care. Of course the Northwest, like the rest of the country, could still use far more psychiatrically trained personnel than it has, but today its problems are at least comparable rather than many times as severe.

The Northwest Clinic is doing more than simply provide the benefits of team practice to several hundred patients a year, important as this is in a state which before the war had only ten psychiatrists in private practice. Through full use of its facilities, the Clinic is serving as a training ground for the young practitioners so sorely needed throughout the West. Two members of the Clinic are teaching analysts associated with the San Francisco Psychoanalytic Institute, and seven are on the faculty of the University of Washington Medical School. The Medical School, the Graduate School of Social Work, and the Department of Clinical Psychology have utilized the Northwest Clinic for field-work assignments. And equally important, for Seattle at least, the Clinic has adopted a policy requiring each of its members to participate in community activities to some extent. As a result of all these factors, the influence of the Northwest Clinic upon the mental health of Washingtonians is far greater than might be expected from the bare numer-

ical figures showing size of staff or the number of patients diagnosed and treated.

The idea of the Northwest Clinic originated with two psychiatrists, Dr. Edward D. Hoedemaker and Dr. Douglass W. Orr, while they were serving as medical officers in the Navy. Both men had been in private practice in Seattle before the war, and they felt that a private clinic offering team-practice psychiatric care would meet a need in the community and would afford them personal security, although it might not bring so large an income as they could expect from individual private practice. Immediately after their discharge, therefore, while Dr. Hoedemaker returned to the Menninger Foundation for training in psychoanalysis, Dr. Orr, an analyst who had also received his training at Menninger's, returned to Seattle to see what he could do about starting the clinic. He was joined at that time by Dr. Florence Swanson, a child psychiatrist.

Within a few months all the preliminaries had been completed, and on September 1, 1946, the Northwest Clinic opened its doors at 1116 Spring Street, in a private residence, which has since been converted entirely for Clinic purposes. The large, comfortable-looking building is located on a quiet street, away from the center of Seattle but close enough to it for convenience.

The present ownership of the Clinic is vested in three partners—Drs. Hoedemaker and Orr and Dr. J. Lester Henderson, who was also with the Clinic from the start. Dr. Henderson, who earned his medical degree at Washington University in St. Louis and obtained advanced psychoanalytic training at St. Elizabeth's Hospital in Washington, D.C., had just completed five years in psychiatry in the United States Naval

Medical Corps when he joined the Clinic in 1946. Edith Buxbaum, Ph.D., a non-medical analyst, who now shares in seniority with the partners, was a member of the faculty at the Psychoanalytic Institute in New York before coming to Seattle in 1947. With Dr. Orr she is one of the two training analysts authorized in the Northwest by the Psychoanalytic Institute of San Francisco.

In addition to the partners, the staff now includes four psychiatrists, a clinical psychologist, and two psychiatric social workers. Such business matters as purchasing, fees, taxes, and salaries are the responsibility of the business manager; and the secretarial and reception functions, as well as personnel records, are supervised by the administrative secretary. The total staff, including professional, administrative, and clerical employees, now numbers twenty.

All professional and legal liability of the Northwest Clinic rests with the three partners. A "chain of command" has been set up in the organization, whereby problems channel through department heads and the chief of staff (Dr. Hoedemaker) to the Executive Committee, which includes the partners, the business manager, and the administrative secretary. A table of organization provides: "The Executive Committee discusses and deliberates; the Partners make the decisions."

All members of the staff, including the clerical assistants, have received special training and orientation in the philosophy of the Clinic. That philosophy goes into operation the moment a prospective patient walks in the front door to ask for help. From receptionist to chief of staff, everyone in the organization knows that the first concern is always for the individual.

In a talk before the Council of Social



Agencies last year, Dr. Orr contrasted the professional philosophy of the Northwest Clinic with an older school of psychiatric thought. "Some psychiatrists," he said, "earn their daily bread principally by prescribing vitamins, giving injections of hormones, or administering one or another type of 'shock treatment.' We, on the other hand, spend most of our waking hours listening to patients talk, attempting to understand what feelings and emotional conflicts lie hidden behind all the talk, confronting the patient as tactfully as possible with the somewhat painful and frightening facts of his inner life, and, thereby, after the pain and fright are relieved, permitting him to become less tense and be less in need of his neurotic symptoms that have, after all, been a façade and a set of defenses against the hitherto disturbing, hidden conflicts."

In the same address Dr. Orr suggested his view of the Clinic's place in the community: "The psychiatrist has come out of the courts and out of the state hospitals and is much closer than before to the family doctor, the internist, and the social case worker."

Starting with the first step in the diagnostic process, there is an advantage in the team-practice approach. Instead of having to wait days or weeks for an appointment with the psychiatrist, the patient is promptly interviewed by one of the "intake physicians," with a half-day reserved three times a week for this responsibility.

On the basis of the intake interview—or sometimes after more extensive study—the patient may be referred to a state hospital, to another psychiatrist, to agencies such as the Family Society, the University of Washington Psychiatric Clinic for Children, or one of the

community's other private or public resources. This occurs in about 10 per cent of the cases. Referrals are usually made because the patient is unable to pay for lengthy treatment or because the Clinic believes that case work from another type of agency would help. Usually, it is a combination of these factors, and in actual practice the Clinic does not refuse emergency cases, no matter how indigent. Even on cases treated by the Clinic, however, the resources of public or voluntary social agencies may be used, as in the placement of a child in a foster-home.

If the case remains with the Northwest Clinic, however, and if the problem appears deep seated or complex, a full clinical examination is generally the next step. This involves three principal steps: social history, obtained and recorded by the case worker; laboratory testing by the clinical psychologist; and a psychiatric examination.

The psychiatric social worker spends about four hours interviewing the patient and, with his permission, others who may be able to supply pertinent information—relatives, friends, employer, schoolteacher, minister. Moreover, a developmental questionnaire, running to eleven pages and containing fifty numbered items, is submitted to a close relative of the patient, usually a parent. In addition to detailed questions on the prenatal condition of the mother, the details of the birth, the attitudes of the parents, and the health of the patient in childhood, the questionnaire concludes with these two items, the answers to which may often be the most revealing:

49. We would appreciate your comments regarding this questionnaire; in particular, your comments regarding the feelings that may have arisen as you read and answered the questions. Please designate any ques-



tions that brought up definite feelings on your part.

50. If there is anything that you consider important that is *not* covered in this questionnaire, please write it out on the back of this sheet.

The objective personality tests, administered by the clinical psychologist, are designed to reveal both the patient's intellectual capacity and his emotional patterns. Dr. Hoedemaker, the Clinic's chief of staff, has described the tests as comparable to an X-ray in the surgeon's examination, in that they often reveal disorders which can be discovered in no other way. The battery of nine separate tests requires from four to six hours to administer.

Final step in the clinical examination, the psychiatric study, usually takes about one additional hour. It may be supplemented by neurologic examination and other physical tests.

The rather exhaustive process of multiple interviews, clinical tests, and questionnaire—described as a “psychiatric workup”—is time-consuming, to be sure. The leaders of the Northwest Clinic believe, however, that it insures more accurate diagnosis and that in the long run it is most economical because it lays the groundwork for more effective treatment. Moreover, as the partners pointedly suggested in a memo to the staff at the time the psychiatric workup idea was put into effect, the patients coming to the Northwest Clinic would include many whose earlier treatment elsewhere had failed for lack of adequate study before diagnosis.

When the facts of the patient's illness and his background have been marshaled, they are weighed and discussed at a professional staff meeting. This meeting, which usually takes a full hour, permits a comparison of impressions by

the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the social worker, and any other staff members concerned with the case. During the course of the meeting, too, the patient is generally admitted for an informal discussion of about five minutes, so that the Clinic team may see him again personally before they reach their conclusions. Then a diagnosis is obtained.

The value of the thorough psychiatric workup and subsequent staff discussion is illustrated in the difficult case of Mrs. Mary B. Mrs. B. was twenty-four years old, a graduate of a woman's college in the East, and had been married two years. She was referred to the Clinic by a physician, a general practitioner, to whom she had gone with a complaint of severe “migraine headaches.” The usual treatment for such headaches had failed to help her, and the doctor sought psychiatric help when he realized that the patient's migraine appeared only when her husband came home from a trip, and that it disappeared when he went to sea again.

After the intake psychiatrist's interview, Mrs. B. got the full diagnostic study—social history by the case worker, personality tests by the clinical psychologist, and formal psychiatric examination. Then the facts were considered at a Clinic staff conference.

What they added up to was revealing. The history disclosed a lifelong dependence on indulgent but dominating parents, and the psychological tests bore this out. Mrs. B.'s marriage represented an attempt to achieve indulgence *without* domination, but it failed from the start. One of the reasons it was doomed in advance, according to those who know the case, was that it represented rebellion—unconscious rebellion—against the parents; and the chances of the marriage were made slimmer by the fact

that the girl had chosen a husband as immature as herself.

The record revealed another significant fact: From the night of the honeymoon, a series of ostensibly physical symptoms delayed consummation of the marriage and eventually made it necessary for the girl to return to her parents' home. From this and other facts the Clinic team concluded that the girl was herself unconsciously opposed to her own marriage.

By piecing together the many facts uncovered by various members of the team, the staff finally diagnosed the case of "migraine headaches" as hysteria and recommended psychoanalysis.

Psychologic treatment may take one of a number of forms, ranging from the intensive and lengthy therapy of psychoanalysis (what Dr. Hoedemaker describes as "the fine surgery in psychiatry") through routine psychotherapy or case work, to occasional interviews with the social worker. In some cases, hospitalization, with or without shock therapy, may be arranged. Every angle of the case is considered at the staff conference in deciding what treatment shall be prescribed: the intensity and nature of the disturbance, the need for prompt action versus the desirability of another approach which might require waiting for weeks or months, the ability of the patient to pay, the effect on relatives and friends.

Whatever the treatment decided upon, it is carried out under the supervision of the Clinic's psychiatrists. In many cases several members of the psychiatric team participate in the treatment. Thus, while the patient may be receiving psychotherapy from a member of the medical staff, the social worker may be interviewing members of the

family. Or the clinical psychologist may administer further tests while the case worker is providing supportive therapy. Case conferences of the professional staff are held periodically, at which the progress of certain patients is reviewed and decisions reached as to whether a modification of treatment is desirable.

The advantages of team practice as established by the experience of the Northwest Clinic have been summarized by one of the partners in these terms:

(1) Group effort can be more enjoyable than individual effort, just as community life is generally to be preferred to isolation; and there are many compensations in sharing professional experiences. (2) Group discussions are a constant learning experience for all members of the group and provide added safeguards to patients in the pooling of a wide variety of training and clinical experience. Our staff conferences, therefore, have teaching value for all of us, especially for our younger colleagues, as well as direct value for our patients. (3) Group practice makes possible the use of more comprehensive diagnostic tools. Few individual practitioners, for example, can afford psychiatric social workers to take exhaustive psychiatric social histories or clinical psychologists to administer an elaborate variety of psychological tests. (4) We believe, too, that a group offers better treatment resources to patients. After diagnosis, what an individual patient needs may be met better by a psychoanalyst in some instances or by a nonanalyst in others; by a male psychiatrist in some instances, or by a female psychiatrist in others. We thus have a certain flexibility that we consider to be of great value.

When the Northwest Clinic started in 1946, psychotic patients were placed in a privately operated sanitarium, where they continued to receive treatment under the guidance of the Clinic staff. Almost from the start, however, the partners of the Clinic found that this resource was unsatisfactory, principally because of a conflicting philosophy of treatment. As the need for adequate sanitarium facilities became apparent,

the Clinic's leaders called the facts to the attention of prominent civic and business leaders in the Northwest; and last year their work bore fruit in the formation of the Pinel Foundation, incorporated "not for profit" on July 1, 1948.

As its first major project, the Pinel Foundation purchased a rest home just north of Seattle, converting it into a sanitarium for patients suffering from mildly to moderately disturbing mental illness. The Pinel Sanitarium, which opened on September 23, 1948, with eleven patients, has operated close to its capacity of twenty-three almost from the first week. The emphasis at the sanitarium is on "milieu therapy," which requires adaptation of the environment to the patient rather than the other way round. Everything in the sanitarium—physical facilities, occupational-recreational therapy program, even the medicine—is individually prescribed to help the patient recover from his mental ailment. Nurses and attendants receive periodic training in the sanitarium's philosophy of treatment, so that they may understand why they are asked to behave in certain ways toward the patients.

In an early prospectus putting forward the idea of the sanitarium, the leaders of the Northwest Clinic set forth their views in this fashion:

We wish to make clear at the outset the nature of our interest in a psychiatric foundation. In the first place, we know that first-rate psychiatric hospital care is expensive. The experience of the Menninger Foundation, where several of us had parts of our training, indicates that there is little profit in a psychiatric institution that offers the highest type of individualized treatment program. A psychiatric hospital should therefore not be run for profit.

In the second place, we ourselves have no desire to own or to exploit a hospital; and we wish at all cost to avoid that type of situation

in which the need to show a profit determines the quality of care that can be given to patients. We do, however, have profound convictions as to the professional policies that should prevail in a psychiatric hospital and we therefore wish a determining voice in the selection, training and supervision of professional personnel in the hospital-sanitarium with which we are affiliated.

In the third place, all of us entered our partnership committed to some measure of service to the community, not only in terms of what we offer to patients but also in terms of consultation and teaching outside our Clinic. It is our belief that one of the greatest services we can render at this time lies in the creation of the type of psychiatric foundation that we are proposing—a research, teaching and treatment institution.

While the Northwest Clinic was instrumental in stimulating the establishment of the Pinel Sanitarium, and it still continues to provide the core of the professional staff, the policies of the Sanitarium are determined by the board of the Pinel Foundation, a separate and independent organization. Officers of the board are: president, George E. Fahey, Seattle businessman, chairman of the Council of Social Agencies and former juvenile court probation officer; vice-president, Dr. Herbert E. Coe, a surgeon who devotes much of his time to the Children's Orthopedic Hospital; secretary, Dr. Orr; and treasurer, Cebert Baillargeon, president of the Seattle Trust and Savings Bank. Dr. James T. Thickstun, a member of the Northwest Clinic, serves part-time as medical director of the sanitarium, but his services, like those of others on the Clinic staff, are provided on a contractual basis; and the hospital administrator, Bruce M. Burton, has no official connection with the Clinic. Nevertheless, there is a working relationship between the two organizations.

It is difficult to compare the Northwest Clinic's clientele statistically with

that of an individual psychiatrist, on the one hand, or a social agency, on the other, since the situation is so different from both. Still, a quick summary of the problems brought and of the assistance given may point up the scope and emphasis of the program.

Of the 788 new patients admitted during 1948, more than half (402) were referred to the Clinic by private physicians, who continue to be the principal source of referrals; 193 others came of their own accord or were advised by relatives or friends, while 38 were referred by social agencies and a small

brought by parents who were worried because he did not get along with the other youngsters in kindergarten.

The treatment and outcome of these three cases are also indicative of the varied work of the Clinic. For the would-be suicide, full psychoanalysis was recommended and undertaken. It disclosed—and helped him work through—his hostility and rebellion toward his family. The girl who had embraced an evangelical church apparently did so from a desire to have a source of authority which would make decisions for her. There was no emergency in the rather complex problem between her and her parents, however; and since it entailed treatment for several members of the family, involving considerable expenditure, they were referred to a social agency for intensive case-work service. As for the little boy, it is true that he had a few minor behavior difficulties, but the main trouble seemed to be with his parents. The Clinic recommended play therapy for the youngster and counseling for the parents, to reduce their excessive concern over the child.

Because the psychiatrists themselves operate on a true "clinic" basis rather than maintaining separate practices within the same walls, an analysis of their individual schedules would not be particularly revealing. In Table 1 the total program of a typical month, however, shows how the time is apportioned.

By contrast, one of the social workers summarized one month's activity recently as follows: 51 hours of interviews for social histories, 35 hours dictating (unusual, she observed, because ordinarily a similar amount of time is required for interviewing and dictation), 44 hours for treatment, 8 hours in control (conferences with psychiatrist), 10

TABLE 1

Activity	Hours	Per Cent of Time
Therapy.....	1,075½	59.19
Conferences.....	8½	4.49
Agency work.....	156	8.59
Sanitarium.....	206	11.34
Administration.....	173½	9.55
Cancellations, staff vacations, and illness.....	124½	6.84
Total.....	1,817	100.00

group by attorneys, schools, and other sources. Children sixteen years of age or younger numbered 112, or about 14 per cent of the total, while the adult patients included 306 men and 370 women. On the average, one patient in three is finally accepted for outpatient treatment, while an additional 10 per cent are cared for at the Pinel Sanitarium.

Illustrating the variety and complexity of problems brought to the Clinic are the cases of the twenty-seven-year-old man who had tried to kill himself and who came of his own accord shortly thereafter; the seventeen-year-old girl brought by her parents because of her "wilfulness" in joining a bizarre religious sect; and a five-year-old boy

hours in staff conferences. In addition, she noted that her average case load involves eight to ten patients and seven or eight social histories a month.

This type of practice, as the partners are frank to admit, does not come cheaply. On the basis of time invested, fees for diagnosis and subsequent treatment are generally no less expensive than they would be with an individual psychiatrist. (Actually, the fee schedule is quite flexible and is frequently modified in the light of the patient's ability to pay.)

Despite the fact that fees are substantial, the Northwest Clinic's income has not yet made any millionnaires, and neither the partners nor the staff expect to get rich from the practice. The salaries paid the social workers, psychologist, and clerical personnel are somewhat higher than the average in comparable employment elsewhere, and with the other items of overhead, the partners net about 50 per cent of the Clinic's income, rather than the 60-75 per cent which is common among psychiatrists in individual private practice. Moreover, during these first years at least, the partners are voluntarily reinvesting a substantial portion (estimated at about 20 per cent, on the average) of their personal profits, in order to help the enterprise grow. An interesting sidelight on the financing of psychiatric care is the fact that Clinic payments dropped sharply during the strike of mechanics at the Boeing Airplane Company in the summer of 1948. This was not because any of the strikers were receiving treatment and found themselves unable to pay; rather, it was the effect of the strike on the whole economy of Seattle, and the resulting fear of the patients that they might soon be without funds.

"The way we practice," Dr. Orr has said, "offers greater service and brings

smaller return than individual private practice." In addition to professional pride and a spirit of social responsibility, however, the element of personal security counts too. While the individual partners receive less in cash than they would in separate practices, each one is assured a continuity of income. Thus, not only do they continue to share in case of personal illness or accident, but they are enabled to pursue professional advancement through conferences, trips to other psychiatric centers, and the like, without fear of curtailed income. Here is one more advantage, though perhaps of subtle and indirect value to the community, of group practice. It is noteworthy, too, that the partners share equally in the Clinic's income, despite their different skills and earning powers.

Beyond the contribution to mental hygiene which the Clinic makes simply by existing and pioneering the team practice of psychiatric care, the partners and other members individually devote a portion of their time to participation in community affairs. For example, members of the Clinic provide teaching and consultation services to the Family Society of Seattle, the Home Service Division of the American Red Cross, the Children's Orthopedic Hospital, and other community agencies—all at a reduced fee or, in some cases, no charge whatever. Educationally—in addition to the individual teaching services of Clinic staff members at the University of Washington—the Clinic has been recognized by the Veterans Administration and the State Department of Public Instruction as a school in psychiatry under the G.I. Bill. Courses and seminars are offered from time to time at the Clinic; these have included "An Introduction to Psychoanalysis," given by Dr. Orr and



Dr. Buxbaum, and a special seminar for children's workers, conducted by Dr. Buxbaum. Occasionally, other psychiatrists practicing in the community have been invited to lecture or to conduct discussions at the Clinic.

Talks, radio appearances, and a variety of committee assignments are also part of the regular schedule for members of the Clinic. When the Columbia Broadcasting System last February aired its full-hour documentary program, "Mind in the Shadow," Dr. Orr participated in a supplementary radio panel over KIRO, the CBS affiliate in Seattle, on which the mental hospital situation in the state of Washington was described. Dr. Hoedemaker was the keynote speaker at the annual state conference of the Washington Association for Social Welfare this year, Dr. Buxbaum participated in an institute of the Family Service Association of America in 1948, and members of the Clinic have addressed local P.T.A. groups, Junior League chapters, and other organizations.

In fact, the pressure of community service assignments is so heavy that the Clinic is gradually modifying its official attitude. More and more, the feeling of the partners is that they can be most useful at policy-making levels. Thus, while Dr. Orr rarely accepts invitations to address women's clubs and similar organizations, he was willing to speak on three successive evenings at special screenings of *The Snake Pit* for legislators, the press, and fellow-psychiatrists. He recently formulated the Clinic's attitude regarding such "extra-curricular activities" in these words:

We prefer to make a contribution to preventive services whenever we can; therefore, the emphasis on participation in the Washington Society for Mental Hygiene and similar activi-

ties having to do with parent education, child-welfare services, etc. In addition, we like to serve as much as possible at the policy-making level, rather than to become too engrossed with the detailed problems of any particular agency. Rightly or wrongly, some of us at least feel that it might be important to discuss *The Snake Pit* and its implications with a dozen or fifteen legislators than to serve for a year as consultant in a social agency concerned with the treatment problems of perhaps a couple of dozen clients. We recognize that the treatment task confronting psychiatrists, social workers, and others is virtually overwhelming; that's why we believe that we should concentrate on preventive work, teaching, training, and, when we can, research.

The emphasis on prevention is of course always socially desirable. In the area of mental health, however, it is also dictated by the pressure of the facts. Even though the Northwest Clinic provides a modern resource where formerly none existed, there still remains a large unmet need in Seattle and throughout the Pacific Northwest. Conceivably, the Clinic staff might be five times as large and not meet all the community's psychiatric needs; yet for maximum effectiveness it cannot expand much beyond its present size.

From their own experience with patients, the leaders of the Clinic have confirmed locally the national picture regarding unmet needs. Thus, facilities are inadequate for the outpatient care of psychiatric problems; and there are grave shortages of psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, clinical psychologists, and psychiatric nurses. The Clinic already has waiting lists and expects that they will grow longer as the facilities become known. There is not only a waiting list for patients, especially those needing psychoanalysis; young doctors who want analytic training must also wait eighteen months or more. The Clinic's co-operative experiences with social

agencies in the community have pointed up also a series of gaps in this type of service. Among these are the need for a special type of foster-home for children and adolescents requiring placement during a long period of psychotherapy; fully equipped institutional facilities for emotionally disturbed children, including resident psychiatric care; and such auxiliary services as a combined medical and psychiatric diagnostic and treatment center, and the addition of treatment beds for psychiatric patients in Seattle hospitals. These lacks are not peculiar to the Northwest, but they have been spotlighted by the experience of the Clinic.

To none of these problems is there an easy answer. Yet the Northwest Clinic is moving forward steadily, and the mental health of the community it serves moves with it. The most immediate value is the addition of a new psychiatric resource and particularly the high stand-

ard of treatment which the Clinic has set and is maintaining. The long-range advantages, however, should prove equally valuable: the demonstration that professionals of different backgrounds and skills can work together for the benefit of the patient; the discovery of new techniques arising out of such team practice; the educational usefulness of the institution as a training resource; and the constructive effect which skilled men and women, devoting themselves to the promotion of mental hygiene, can have on the community in which they live.

These are the fundamental values of the Northwest Clinic, making it important not only to Seattle and the state of Washington but to the whole nation. The Northwest Clinic—and others which may be established on the same pattern—can well work a revolution in the mental adjustment of us all.

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

## ECONOMIC CHANGE AND THE CHANGE IN FUNCTION OF PRIVATELY CONTROLLED SOCIAL AGENCIES

HAROLD H. PUNKE

THIS article considers the social philosophy underlying the operations of philanthropic and endowed agencies and institutions in American society, the relation of social change to the need for social services, the role of tax exemption and of the size and distribution of the national income, the influence of small givers on philanthropic programs, and the status of small agencies.

### SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY AND THE PRIVATE AGENCY

Before the idea was generally accepted of levying taxes to provide education, health, and comparable services in the interest of the "general welfare," as that phrase is conceived by the Constitution of the United States, many institutions and agencies were established for rendering services of this kind on the basis of private support. The community or state was recognized as having authority to permit such agencies to operate, through charters or general legislation governing their activities, as well as to prevent them from operating.

The charters and legislation commonly granted tax exemption and other privileges at the same time that funds raised by taxes levied on the community in general were used to provide police protection and other services for these agencies as well as for the rest of the community. This arrangement between agency and community was not considered a donation by the community to a socially favored group. It was considered an equitable arrangement by which

the community made the equivalent of money grants to agencies which were not under its immediate administrative control in exchange for particular types of service to the community.

Three characteristics of underlying social philosophy should be emphasized regarding the types of service concerned: the object of the service must be community welfare rather than private gain; the service must contribute to developing the type of social well-being which the government attempts to promote under its "general welfare" responsibility; and it should be service which under existing circumstances a private agency can render more economically or otherwise more effectively than a public agency. No question may arise concerning the foregoing theoretical statement, at least the first two provisions of it, although one should expect problems of administrative interpretation in specific instances. However, so far as the operation of philanthropies and endowed institutions in an increasingly complex economy is concerned, the third provision seldom receives adequate emphasis—that under existing circumstances the private agency can render the service more economically or otherwise more effectively than a public agency.

### SOCIAL CHANGE AND CHANGED SERVICE NEEDS

With changes in general social conditions the need for particular services as well as the most effective means of rendering needed service also changes. Nev-

ertheless, in many instances "existing circumstances" has largely meant the circumstances existing when the agency was established. Too often individual philanthropies and private institutions have failed to adapt their activities to social and economic change and have settled into routine performance of activities which may have been experimental or otherwise unique when the agency came into existence but which have since lost their distinctive features. Private and philanthropic institutions which rest complacently behind a "Maginot Line" of legal protection afforded by individual charters or comparable provisions in general legislation should recognize that these documents give only a limited protection and that they constitute an increasingly obsolete form of equipment with which to face the demands for service in a dynamic social order. With organizations, as with individuals, the future will be determined by those having the insight and vitality to sense and to make necessary adjustments.

The foregoing comments imply that the role of private and endowed agencies and institutions is mainly in the field of experimentation and in other service which is limited in scope as well as in demand for funds and that, after experimentation and pilot operation have convinced the public of the need and feasibility of a service, the resulting large-scale operation and financial demands should become responsibilities of public agencies which are supported by taxes and are rather directly responsible to the popular will. However, these comments do not imply that publicly supported and controlled agencies or institutions should not experiment. The experimental method of arriving at truth and of improving human well-

being is only beginning to gain general acceptance, especially in sociological fields, although in a modest sense it has already been a part of Western civilization for some centuries. If comprehensive administrative programs in social fields are to be based on objective evidence, we will need all the experimental findings that both publicly and privately controlled agencies can produce. The point here is that, in addition to experimentation, public agencies must administer broad-scale programs because they have the machinery for raising and distributing the necessary funds, whereas privately controlled agencies can make better use of their more limited resources through experimentation than through program administration.

#### INCREASED IMPORTANCE OF TAX EXEMPTION

The role suggested for privately controlled agencies, always on the frontier of experimentation, implies a strenuous existence for their professional and directive personnel. It demands continuous alertness to general social change as well as to developments in specialized research technologies. The financial reward is tax exemption, along with various tax-supported services that are provided for the private agencies as part of the community.

The importance of the tax-exemption feature has changed materially during the past generation. A much larger percentage of the income of individuals and of corporations organized for profit is claimed by taxes now than before World War I. These individuals and corporations are therefore more justified in demanding a closer scrutiny than they were in earlier days in the use made of the income of organizations and insti-

tutions which pay no taxes and which even secure various protections and services paid for by taxes levied on others. As tax exemption becomes a richer and more cherished prize, it is reasonable to expect an alert society to insist on more significant returns from the tax-exemption privilege.

With the increased stake in the privilege of tax exemption, it increasingly behooves "legitimate" philanthropies and endowed institutions to help hunt down and expose the quacks and impostors in the field, who aim at tax evasion rather than at public service. Incidentally, the increased public attention which the impostors have received in the past few years may be considered one aspect of increased scrutiny of the use made of this privileged segment of the national income. Anyone who thinks that an agency which is privileged in the sense indicated can ignore the public welfare in the use made of its property or other economic resources should reflect on the extent to which the privileged holdings of church property in medieval Europe was a factor in the Protestant Reformation or on the role of similar holdings in the economic shuffles which have taken place in Russia and parts of Latin America during the present century. It is an elementary principle of justice that when special privileges are granted to particular individuals or groups, they are granted in return for special contributions—past or prospective. Practice may vary from this principle for a while, but a day of reckoning comes.

#### SIZE AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE NATIONAL INCOME

Earlier reference was made to the limited security which philanthropies and endowed institutions have behind

charters or comparable provisions in legislation—although the tax-exempt feature is important. Of greater importance than the shielding of institutional income from taxes, however, is the flow of income to the agency from the general economic productivity of the nation. With the nation's expanding economy and monetary income, it is reasonable to assume that the income of a particular endowed or philanthropic institution must increase in roughly the same proportion as the national income if the institution is to maintain its relative status concerning experimentation and cultural leadership. However, an increase in the nation income should mean an increase in the number of potential givers and also an increase in the aggregate amount of their gifts. Adjustability in the program of an endowed institution is related to the extent to which the institution will share in the national income.

With decreased interest rates and marked dollar increases in operating costs, it is obvious that an endowment of a specific amount will not at present support so extensive a program as it did a generation ago. This fact, together with the more extensive and more complicated undertakings demanded of leadership in an expanding economy, shows the need of privately supported agencies for an increased volume of steady income. Tax rates on individuals and on enterprises organized for profit, as well as the distribution of the national income among groups of income receivers, are important in this connection.

There seems to be some difference of opinion concerning the influence which a high federal tax rate on large incomes, as a recent economic change that is likely to remain, has on the phil-



anthropic contributions made by wealthy persons. It should be apparent, however, that, if the tax rate in a certain income bracket takes 80 per cent of the net income, a donor from this bracket is actually sacrificing only 20 per cent of a philanthropic contribution which he makes; whereas, if the tax took only 50 per cent of the net income, he would be making a personal sacrifice of the other 50 per cent of the contribution. High income-tax rates on large incomes therefore mean that the actual sacrifice made by the person who determines whether the gift will be made or to whom it will be made is less than if tax rates on such incomes are low. Many donors will evaluate gifts in terms of the sacrifice to themselves rather than in terms of the dollar amounts received by benefactors. With high tax rates the greater sacrifice is passed on to the federal government—which loses immediate revenue when the private income is given to a philanthropy.

In recent years the distribution of the national income among income-receivers has been such as to increase the number of persons with moderate but comfortable incomes—persons who could make small individual gifts, possibly on an annual basis, which would aggregate substantial amounts. Philanthropies and endowed institutions have not been slow in recognizing the promise of this income group as a possible source of fairly high and sustained income for such institutions.

#### SMALL GIVERS AND RESPONSIVE PHILANTHROPIC PROGRAMS

To induce sustained philanthropic giving by persons of moderate incomes, a philanthropy or an institution must convince small givers of the importance of its program. This means that its pub-

lic relations activities must be geared to a wider audience than was necessary when an institution could depend on a few large donors. To convince a broad swath of the public of the virtues of a program, it is necessary to show clearly how the program is related to the public interest—the welfare of average persons. This means that agency activities must change along with changes in social conditions which affect the general welfare. Hence, the economic changes that have broadened the population base to which philanthropies look for financial support place a premium on adjustability regarding the functions and services of the philanthropies. This may mean, to a greater extent than in the past, that economic conditions and the attitudes of givers will force philanthropic and endowed agencies continuously to seek undertakings which are experimental and unique in character of service involved—which reflect changing conditions and needs—rather than merely to continue activities that may have been progressive at some earlier date.

A significant thought at this point could be formulated by asking the extent to which the people in general—the current generation of people rather than some past generation which may have granted a charter—are to determine the manner in which the current resources of the country will be used. This relates to both taxed and tax-exempt resources. The proportion of the nation's total resources that fall in the tax-exempt category is obviously important. If only a small percentage of the resources have a tax-free status, the item is not important enough for much public attention; but, when large blocks of resources are involved, one should expect an alert public to become aroused.

Under these conditions one might expect to hear it urged that boards which govern philanthropic and endowed institutions should include representation which is directly responsive to the public—through popular vote or through appointment by a popularly elected official. Under conditions of the general character described it clearly becomes a responsibility of philanthropic agencies to keep the public informed. The problems of the democratic process are the same here as elsewhere.

#### REALISTIC PROGRAMS AMONG SMALL AGENCIES

A trend of economic change which broadens the population and economic base on which philanthropies and endowed institutions depend and which tends to force them in the direction of greater experimental activity as suggested would seem particularly important with respect to privately controlled agencies and institutions in education and social welfare. In both fields there are large numbers of small enterprises which are so located and so organized and directed that they render a unique service. It seems apparent that in both fields there are also a large number which do only a mediocre job of rendering mere routine service to a small clientele, with the probability that more helpful service and more economical operation could be effected through consolidation into larger administrative units which might afford better leadership. Two social pressures toward such

consolidation would seem to be a growing demand for better service and a greater scrutiny by givers concerning the types of service programs they will support—or a greater scrutiny by parents of the schools which their children will attend.

Some metropolitan areas with a few hundred small agencies around town might profit by a survey of needs and of services rendered to determine the extent of gaps and overlappings in services provided, as well as the effectiveness of utilizing employee effort. The fact that some workers may receive no pay in money does not mean that there is no waste in human effort if their services are ineffectively utilized. The fact that there is a high turnover of personnel in small agencies may imply that such agencies act as training grounds for personnel needed by larger agencies—as a kind of service—but it does not imply that the small agencies constitute the most effective training ground that might be provided. An attempt to determine the number of agencies that a community needs, or the optimum number, is somewhat comparable to an attempt to determine the number of individual workers of different types that a community should have.

What is said regarding small voluntary welfare agencies applies in large measure to small, privately controlled schools.

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## USE OF RECURRING STATISTICAL DATA IN MAINE PUBLIC ASSISTANCE PROGRAM<sup>1</sup>

PAULINE SMITH MC CLAY

As I began considering, in preparation for this discussion, the manifold ways in which recurring statistical data are put to use in our public assistance program operations, my thoughts quite naturally strayed back to the days, not so many years ago, when we were operating with no Division of Research and Statistics. As a district supervisor in a district consisting of three counties and staffed by some twelve to fifteen social workers, with no regular field service and virtually no regular state-wide reports from central office, I can assure you that we often had a very real sense of working in complete isolation.

Just from the standpoint of having state-wide data that would serve as criteria by which we might measure our performance, we felt a tremendous lack and found ourselves continuously wondering what went on in the rest of the state. Were we measuring up in production? Were we applying policy exactly as were the other six districts or were we more restrictive or more generous? Were we rejecting more applications or fewer? How did our case loads compare in size with the other districts? These and many other questions kept recurring in our minds. On the other hand, we were asked to gather certain statistical

information, to submit monthly reports on case-load status and action, and to prepare and send to central office day sheets outlining our daily activities. We had no evidence that the requirement of gathering and reporting this material—which was oftentimes annoying, bothersome, useless, as far as we could see, and altogether a nuisance—represented any more than a whim or notion on the part of some person or persons in central office. If we questioned or complained, we then learned that it was required by the Social Security Board, which made it not a whit less of a nuisance.

Later, as a member of central office staff, I began to get a real understanding and appreciation of the important role played by the products of our grudging labor, that is, recurring statistical data. However, not until the department established a full-fledged Division of Research and Statistics were many of the potentialities for putting these data to effective uses as a truly vital part of program operations fully recognized. This recognition came about through the availability and study of statistical materials, through practice and learning in the use of the data, through the helpful guidance and teaching of the director of that division, and, probably most of all, through the director's analysis and interpretation of statistics. This is a highly technical field, and we are ever aware of our need for the research and statistics staff to analyze and draw out valid conclusions for us and through interpretation and example to help us re-

<sup>1</sup> Paper presented at the Research and Statistics Conference of professional staffs of Division of Research and Statistics and of administrators of public welfare agencies in New England on June 29 and 30, 1949, in Boston, Mass., by Pauline Smith McClay, director of public assistance, Maine Department of Health and Welfare.

duce these technical data to terms that can be comprehended and applied in a practical fashion to our program-planning and operations.

In discussing ways in which we utilize recurring statistical data, it seems well to group the illustrations according to the particular types of statistical reports under individual headings.

#### QUARTERLY CASE-LOAD REPORT

Our quarterly case-load report has been in use for several years, although not in its present form. From time to time we have found it necessary to change its form and content to meet changing needs and emphasis. This report is a quarterly compilation of statewide data regarding staff, case load, by category, and relationship between staff and case load, status of work on the active and pending load, and work accomplishment on the active load, by category during the quarter. The public assistance social workers throughout the state report the data at the close of each quarter to the district supervisor, who summarizes the material for his district and submits it to central office. The Division of Research and Statistics then compiles the data for state-wide distribution to the district supervisors and analyzes it for central-office staff, pointing up the more significant findings.

The source of the data for the social worker is his case-load control file, which serves as a uniform "tickler" file for him and a supervisory tool for the district supervisor and plays a vital part in the organization and planning of work. This control file consists of three-by-five cards maintained by every social worker for each case in his load; as minimum information the cards have the name, case number, cross-reference number, residence, date of last visit,

and, if there is need for a re-call before the next periodic visit would occur, the date and reason for the re-call. A different color is used for each category. The cards are filed by monthly date of visit under separating tabs that indicate the month of the year and are moved back into their current location as subsequent visits are made and dates entered. We are convinced of the accuracy of data reported in this manner because of frequent tests made against the Research and Statistics case-load report which have found them to be substantially accurate.

These reports are regularly discussed in district supervisory staff meetings to highlight and evaluate significant findings, such as variations between districts in up-to-dateness of eligibility reviews. District supervisors, in turn, discuss them in district staff meetings for similar purposes. The reports point the way to study and solution of many problems that are state wide and reveal clues that result in significant policy changes. They serve as a basis for distributing staff lines as case-load size shifts between districts. In individual conferences with district supervisors they are used regularly by the field representatives from central office as problems that are peculiar to a given district show-up. In this latter respect, comparative data between districts point up district deviations, and conferences are aimed at uncovering causes and solutions. The district supervisor uses the social workers' reports similarly to discover variations among social workers and thus to point up areas in which some workers need special help, as well as general areas for focus in the district. The workers find it helpful in self-evaluation to take this quarterly look at their case loads, extent of ac-

complishment, comparison with state-wide data, etc.; and it also affords an excellent opportunity for the next quarter's planning. It serves as a measuring stick for all district staff. Often-times, study of this report in combination with other statistical data is indicated and proves or disproves speculative reasoning. It furnishes an excellent opportunity for comparison of categories to discover whether there is well-balanced, total coverage or whether one or two categories are being slighted while others get major attention. The same could be said relative to the evenness of spread between pending and active cases. The statistical analysis prepared by the statistician is invaluable in calling attention quickly to discrepancies or variations as between districts, from quarter to quarter, etc. Concrete illustrations will substantiate these generalizations relative to broad uses. An item no longer in the report disclosed dictation problems through recurring reports of undictated visits. Through such measures as redistribution of clerical lines, wider use of dictaphones, supervisory help in organizing work for dictation, and the setting-up of dictation schedules for staff, this problem evaporated; and reporting of this was no longer necessary. The point here is that the reports highlighted the problem and, once efforts were directed at study and solution, told us when these efforts were producing results.

Another illustration might be the recent acquisition of two extra social worker lines. After considering many factors in deciding where to assign these lines, our final decision was based on the information revealed in the quarterly case-load report, especially that section pertaining to relationship between case load and staff as reported

in the quarterly case-load report. Each of the two districts showing the greatest deficiency of staff in relation to case-load units gained a new social worker. Incidentally, the weighted case-load figures are based on a ratio of one aid-to-dependent-children case to two old age assistance or aid-to-the-blind cases. We had begun several months ago to think of reassigning case loads within the districts according to this ratio on the basis of the experience of some other states. However, it was not until our own extensive time study proved the validity of this formula that we had general state-wide application of the formula for equalization of case loads.

Still another illustration is the addition of a section for reporting frequency of eligibility reviews. We had questions about the time intervals between these reviews. Were the social workers able to visit recipients more often than the minimum requirement of once yearly? Were there differences in time intervals between categories or between districts? Should we change the policy and require interviews to be made more often than once in every twelve-month period, and, if so, what length of time would be reasonable? In order to answer our questions, we asked the social workers, in addition to reporting the number of eligibility reviews completed during the quarter, to break down the reviews to show the number of months that had elapsed since the last prior review. As a result of this study, we have found that the social workers consistently make more frequent reviews in aid to dependent children than in the other categories and, further, that more than a third of these reviews are made at intervals of less than six months. Influenced by these findings, we are contemplating revising our policy in aid to dependent children



to require a complete review of eligibility in every six-month period instead of every twelve months, as heretofore.

These illustrations are typical and demonstrate specifically some of the ways in which statistical data have served us effectively. General statements that pertain to this particular report can well be carried forward to other reports in current use in Maine that we shall discuss here, especially comments pertaining to their use with staff in individual conferences and staff meetings.

#### TIME-INTERVAL REPORTS ON DISPOSAL OF APPLICATIONS

The report on time intervals between date of application and date of disposal by approval or rejection is compiled by districts in a single state-wide report for distribution to the district supervisors and central-office staff. The source of these data is a record maintained in the statistical division, which, in turn, depends on authorizations for payment and notices of rejection which are prepared by the social workers. When we initiated these reports about three years ago, there were some truly startling revelations. One district supervisor was astounded to see one application in her district that resulted in a final rejection three years after the application date. The time lag in disposing of applications, although partly explained by such real factors as staff vacancies, lack of funds, and travel difficulties, pointed very definitely to the need for further exploration. First of all, we began asking the social workers to supplement this report with a list of cases pending more than sixty days, including the date of application, and the specific reasons for nondisposal. This in itself had measurable results in reducing time lags; and, reinforced by supervision, some

revisions in policy, and clarified policy statements on the whole process of disposing of applications, it has shortened the time for disposing of applications tremendously. This report continues to make us sharply conscious of the time factor and of the need for continuing supervision in this area, although progress to date leads us to hope that soon we shall no longer need to require reports of cases pending more than sixty days.

Further, this awareness of the time factor focused attention on the need to streamline certain accounting processes in central office so that payments once authorized by the social workers could be made more expeditiously. The indisputable evidence that current need was not being currently met gave impetus to efforts already being directed toward reducing the time lag between authorization by the social worker and actual payment.

#### INTERVIEW-DATA REPORT

The interview-data report represents one of our chief sources of statistical information for planning, testing, and evaluating activity. This, also, is a quarterly report and is based on the social workers' day sheets; it is compiled by the Division of Research and Statistics and is distributed to all district supervisors and central-office staff. Here, again, we rely heavily on the text prepared by the statistician, which points out such significant details as differences among districts in emphases on certain types of activity, differences between two or more quarters, disproportionate attention to one or more activities, and differences among districts in the amount of work on interviewing activity.

This report presents the number of

interviews completed during the quarter, by district and category; percentage of interviews during the quarter on pending and active cases, by district and category; number of field and number of office interviews, by district, reported for the quarter and their relationship to each other for the current and preceding two quarters; and relationship between client and collateral interviews, by district, for the current and two preceding quarters.

Uses served by this report are many, some of which are suggested above with reference to the statistical analysis of this material. These findings are always studied and analyzed in district supervisory staff meetings, and they are used as a test or measurement in a variety of ways. At a recent meeting of district supervisors, for example, we were discussing ways and means of staying within very limited travel allowances, using as the factual data for discussion a statewide report, by district, of monthly and cumulative travel expenditures. Comparison between this and the interview data brought forth some interesting facts. Districts that had the highest percentage of office interviews had generally been able to keep within the travel allotment for their districts, while some others had overdrawn. However, the districts high in office interviews were not necessarily those with urban case loads. On the contrary, we frequently found that a district with a concentrated urban case load and a smaller rural load might have a low percentage of office interviews. Because agency policy prescribes office interviews except under specified conditions, the extent to which this policy is carried out is reflected in the interview-data report. By way of background, the agency adopted this policy as a result of several influences, includ-

ing partially successful experimentation with it during the wartime gas and tire shortage, severely reduced and limited travel allowance, improvement in office facilities in some districts, pressure of heavy case loads and resulting lack of time for travel, and, last but by no means least, a recognition of the several advantages of an office interview over a home interview.

Recently the department was criticized for occupying what its critics believed to be too large an office space and too many offices in one district. We needed concrete and convincing evidence with which to refute these criticisms. The particular district office was one that serves a relatively large urban population. We immediately turned to our statistical division and were able to produce without delay the number of interviews held during a given period in this office by the six city workers, which data, properly interpreted, should have convinced the most skeptical critic of the need for all the private interviewing space we had.

Another item in this report that has special significance for us is the ratio of client interviews to total interviews. We were vaguely aware through other media of overdependence on collateral sources of information in establishing eligibility. However, this report, when first studied some time ago, certainly startled us into action when it revealed the extent of overreliance on collaterals. As a direct result we began to direct supervision toward using the client as the primary source of information and increasing selectivity in the use of collateral interviews. At the same time, we scrutinized policy with a view to eliminating unnecessary documentary verification and effected revisions which have

resulted in what we are convinced is an infinitely more productive use of time.

As a testing device this report has proved to be useful. For example, when we have occasion to concentrate on one given activity in order to get it done within a definite time limit, this report shows to what extent the job is being done and instructions carried out.

#### MONTHLY AND QUARTERLY STATISTICAL SUMMARY ON CASE-LOAD COUNT

The statistical reports on case-load count are compiled from figures available in the state office from such sources as the pay roll and the continuing records maintained by the statistical division and are distributed to all district supervisors as well as to central-office staff. These are made up (1) monthly to summarize state-wide applications received and disposed of, by type of action and category, number of pending and active cases, and average payment (the latter current and for the same month one year ago) and (2) quarterly to present by districts and category the same information.

Probably the most important function of this report is to show up trends in such factors as intake rate, denial rate, movement of the average grant, etc. It is used primarily in preparation of agency budgets. However, it also serves an important role in such areas as developing policy and planning work in ways that are self-evident. For example, it told us when we were reaching an alarmingly increased intake rate in aid to dependent children and directed drastic restrictions in the face of perennially inadequate appropriations for this program. The data on increasing intake were used effectively with the legislature this past winter and did result in some

increase in appropriations for aid to dependent children. It furnished the clue by which differences in application of the food standard in old age assistance could be detected. In two districts where the aid-to-dependent-children average payment is high and it was logical to assume that the same would be true of old age assistance, quite the reverse was true; and it was discovered recently that the staff had been applying the food figure for a sedentary individual to practically all old age assistance recipients, while the other district staffs were using the average adult amount. The report is an effective device for giving clues to other kinds of restrictive practices and, if used to its full potentialities, shows whether policy is being carried out. For example, marked differences between districts in denial, approval, or closing rates would imply need for further study to uncover reasons for the differences.

#### REPORT OF REASONS FOR OPENING AND CLOSING CASES

The report of reasons for opening and closing cases, which is based on reasons reported by the social workers on the authorization form, has not been compiled for general distribution. It is rather used as a special source of reference when knotty questions present themselves or for other special purposes. For example, it has been useful, in preparation of that part of the biennial report that deals with public assistance, in interpretation of public assistance rates and in relating these to other social and economic factors. At one point we were seriously concerned about the increasing ratio of new aid-to-dependent-children cases in which the cause of dependency was absence from the home. We broke this down to segre-

gate out cases of death, divorce, and desertion and thus obtain more detailed information; and we were consequently able to show the proportion of cases where each of these reasons for lack of support or care of the child was the principal reason for opening the case. Other interesting bits of information that we get from this report are the number of transfers from general assistance, the average age at which old age assistance recipients come on the rolls, and the significance of depletion of savings. In old age assistance, for example, we have found that depletion of savings is the most frequent reason for opening in the cases opened because of economic change in circumstances. In Maine we know that people are most reluctant to ask the municipalities for assistance. Hence we find a relatively small proportion of transfers from general assistance. These data have been used helpfully, particularly with legislative committees.

#### MISCELLANEOUS REPORTS

*The semiannual fair-hearing report.*—The semiannual fair-hearing report, which is based on records maintained in central office, is used less than most other statistical reports and is not distributed to any staff but is kept on file for reference in the statistical division. It has served the purpose of testing application of policy when we find that the fair-hearing agent, who is the commissioner of the department, has consistently affirmed the social workers' decision and that the increase in fair hearings was primarily due to general resistance to highly restrictive legislation and policy.

*Monthly reports of supplementation of public assistance payments.*—When

restrictive policies resulting from legislative enactments and mandates were effected about two years ago, we requested all municipalities to send in monthly reports of supplementation of public assistance payments. There has been almost universal response to this request, and results have been interesting. We found much less supplementation from general assistance than anticipated and therefore began to seek explanations. Reasons for this have been varied. In any event, these reports have given us useful data to use in discussion with municipal officials, both individually and collectively, with legislative committees, and with the public in general. In discussions with municipal officials we found that some had a definite policy not to supplement with general assistance any categorical assistance payments.

National releases also have been used at times rather extensively to bolster appropriations requests, for interpretation, and for comparative purposes within the agency. We have found that legislative committees are particularly interested in data from other New England states, especially in such areas as recipient rates, average grant, size of staff, administrative expenditures, and sources of funds.

#### CONCLUSION

We have discussed here some of the uses our agency makes of recurring statistical data and have attempted by illustrations to present some concept of their major role in program-planning and appraisal, policy formulation and change, appropriations requests and management, and over-all operations. We in Maine consider ourselves extremely fortunate in having a statisti-

cal division to which we may turn with almost any kind of problem and be certain of getting some help. If our question cannot be answered from data at hand, which it frequently can through the technical skill of the statistician, we then plan together on some device that will bring it forth, relying heavily on the statistician for both method and analysis.

It has been difficult to identify and to describe specifically how we use recurring statistical data because it is so much a part of our everyday activity

that we take for granted and a tool that we use so naturally and constantly. We feel that we have not yet really tapped the roots and drained off all the uses we could make either of data at hand or of the statistical division itself, and we expect to keep on discovering new uses. We hope that this discussion may have opened some new avenues for you, although undoubtedly you have long since employed your statistical data in these and many other ways.

MAINE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND WELFARE  
AUGUSTA, MAINE



## STATE PROGRAMS FOR DISPLACED PERSONS<sup>1</sup>

WERNER W. BOEHM

IMMIGRATION has been a recurring theme in the social and economic history of the United States. Many facts are known about the role of the immigrant in American life, and some interesting theories have been established in an attempt to measure his influence. Economists, such as Hansen, and historians, such as Wittke and most recently Professor Schlesinger of Harvard, have studied immigration from various points of view. Closer to our own field, we are familiar with Professor Davie's study of the refugees. Many of the readers of this *Review*, no doubt, have seen the comprehensive issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* of March, 1949, which is entirely devoted to immigration.

The immigrant, then, is not by any means a novel concern to social workers. Much of our past activity and much of our present concern spring from our preoccupation with helping to find the immigrant a place in our society. And this is as it should be in a country which, to use the words of Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, "has been made by immigrants."

Recently, the discussion of the policy to adopt toward immigration was again reopened with regard to some of the homeless remnants of World War II, called by the rather ignominious name of "Displaced Persons." The United States, by its quota law of 1924, had become a country admitting few immigrants. Even the arrival of refugees in

the thirties and early forties was not, many impressions to the contrary notwithstanding, a significant addition to the American population. The wake of the war, however, found several million people stranded, and, even after the repatriation of the great bulk of them, several hundreds of thousands were still left in countries where they were unwanted, or subject to a precarious existence in camps, or living under the temporary protection of the international organizations.

There are two factors which stand out as differentiating this group of immigrants from others. One is that, from the very time when they became subjects of international attention, it was recognized that their problems could not be solved by national efforts alone. Since they were the victims of an international upheaval and, in the truest sense of the word, had been placed outside national boundaries, their fate had to be given international attention. This led to the creation of the International Refugee Organization.<sup>2</sup> Except for the not-too-successful activities on the part of the League of Nations, I believe that this is the first time that international efforts were employed for a group of immigrants as soon as the problem arose.

The other significant factor is that, for the first time in the history of this country, state-wide organizations came to life with the avowed purpose of concerning themselves with displaced persons. I believe that this is a phenomenal

<sup>1</sup> Paper read at the National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, Ohio, 1949.

<sup>2</sup> See this *Review*, XX, 561; XXI, 253; XXIII, 98, 389, 511, 543.

event in a country which heretofore has displayed a good deal of interest in acculturation but has done this in unofficial ways through many private and civic organizations. The official regulation of immigration has for many years been considered a federal prerogative, while the efforts on behalf of the individual immigrant have been regarded as a local matter. Here, then, we have a departure from the norm: the creation on the part of the states of displaced persons committees seems to be an indication that official notice has been taken of the fact that considerable planning and thinking must go into the effort of helping the recent newcomers to become part of the American scene.

It is difficult to ascertain how this came about. A good deal of the credit should probably be given to the Citizens' Committee for the Resettlement of Displaced Persons. This committee kept the public informed of the issues involved and helped to spark the public discussion which preceded, and was centered upon, the federal legislation for the admission of displaced persons. The committee has pointed up distinguishing characteristics of this group of immigrants: a group that had not decided gradually, as a result of mature reflection, to leave their countries of origin and come to the United States but had, instead, been the involuntary object of an upheaval over which they had no control; and now, presenting a problem of international dimensions, they needed continued planning because they might arrive in groups and because many of them turned to the United States as one of the few countries offering safety and promise. This is a factor of which we should be mindful in the process of helping them find their way in America. They have been uprooted so violently

and for so long that the gift which the United States holds out for them might seem of dubious nature. They may view with mixed feelings the people who offer them a home when they themselves at last realize that their own home and all that it meant to them have been irretrievably lost. It is important to recognize these subtle psychological elements in addition to the need for shelter and employment.

For these reasons the official recognition of displaced persons on the part of the states, which seems to imply an understanding of their special character, is pregnant with possibilities for creating a service which is both flexible and comprehensive and which makes imaginative use of existing facilities on the state and community levels. To determine what might be done, it is necessary to look at what has been done so far. For this purpose a questionnaire was sent in May, 1949, to the forty-eight states in order to obtain information about the nature and functions of the state committees for displaced persons.

At the end of this writing (June, 1949), according to the Federal Displaced Persons Commission, 29, or 60 per cent, of the states had such a committee. Not all these 29 states returned the questionnaire. Of the 25 returns, 14 states indicated the existence of a committee and 11 states indicated the absence of such a body. These 14 states constitute a sample slightly more than 48 per cent of all the states having such an organization. Nineteen states, or almost 40 per cent of all the states, are without any such organization.

Most of these organizations, which in most instances are called "committees" for displaced persons but which in a few instances go by the name of "commis-

sion," were created in 1948. The majority of them were created subsequent to the passage of Public Law 774 in June, 1948, but several started prior to this date in anticipation of federal legislation and with the aim of preparing the ground for the states' activities on behalf of the displaced persons. Minnesota boasts the oldest organization in the group, having established it in November, 1947. Minnesota was followed by South Dakota and Wisconsin, both of which initiated their organizations in January, 1948, and by California, which established its body on June 10, 1948, a few weeks before the passage of federal legislation.

A look at the map indicates that the distribution of the twenty-nine state bodies is heaviest in the middle and north central states and the middle and northern states of the Atlantic seaboard. The western states and, especially, many southern states have not organized any state agencies for displaced persons. Mississippi and Virginia are notable exceptions for the South, and California, Oregon, Colorado, and Wyoming constitute the exceptions for the West.

Three alternative ways of organizing these state committees seemed possible. One was the functioning under the direct authority of the governor; another one was the placement of the committee within the orbit of an already existing state department; and the third was the creation of an interdepartmental committee. The majority, or eight of the fourteen states, chose the first alternative and are operating directly under the governor's auspices. Three have been organized as part of an already existing state department, and three exist in the form of interdepartmental committees.

Of the second group, Minnesota is

noteworthy because its committee is part of the State Division of Social Welfare. The director of the division is chairman of the committee; and the chief of the Unit of Public Assistance, where the committee is actually placed, serves as its administrative secretary. Recently the Minnesota legislature gave this program legal status by adding to the powers and duties of the director of the Division of Social Welfare, who now "shall be the coordinator of the Displaced Persons program."

The characteristic and common factor in the three states which have interdepartmental organizations is the presence of representatives of the departments of agriculture, labor, welfare, commerce, and industry. This would indicate an awareness of the need for co-ordinating the various groups which, by the nature of their functions, will be called upon to serve the new immigrants.

The same thinking seems to have prevailed in organizing the committees which are directly under the governor's auspices. All but one have representatives of agriculture, and most of them have a member of industry (ten states) and of labor (nine states). One characteristic of this group is that their members are drawn from the citizenry at large. However, this does not preclude the occasional presence of a state official. Another characteristic is the presence on these bodies, in the majority of cases, of representatives of the three major faiths, of voluntary organizations, and of civic organizations. In two states—South Dakota and Wisconsin—there is also a representative of the university faculty, in both instances a sociologist. It appears, then, that the committees under the direct auspices of the governor have organized on a broader base than the other groups. On the other

hand, the groups organized within state departments may have more administrative effectiveness.

The characteristic that all groups have in common is the presence of a representative of agriculture. The character of the fourteen states which have a large proportion of farmers in their population accounts for this, in part. The main reason, however, seems to be the need for agricultural labor, which some of the displaced persons will supply.

Conceivably, the interest on the part of the governors, who often created these committees as a result of civic pressure, might have been sufficiently strong to make funds available for the functioning of these organizations. Actually, in this group there is no instance of legislative appropriations. The problem is not serious where the committee is part of an existing department; Minnesota, for example, uses the funds of the Division of Social Welfare. In Massachusetts and Oklahoma a small portion of the governor's emergency fund is available, but, in general, the dearth of funds seems to constitute a serious limitation to the functioning of the organizations. In most instances the staffs are small, often consisting of the executive secretary only, and the members of the committee serve on a voluntary basis. In Wisconsin the chairman is a professor of rural sociology who has devoted much time and energy to the work of the committee, while the executive secretary and secretary are on loan from the State Department of Public Welfare. While this may be a satisfactory expedient for a time, it is clear that, on a long-term basis, such an arrangement will not work effectively, since the primary duties of these officials cannot be indefinitely neglected.

Perhaps this situation shows a certain amount of lukewarmness or a limited interest on the part of the state governments. At any rate, it would indicate the need for continued public support and public pressure in the states if these committees are to be made effective.

In most instances no clear-cut mandate was given to the committees as to the nature of their activities. The task which they set for themselves emerged almost automatically from the fact that many were created prior to the passage of Public Law 774. Their function was to be that of an inquiring body which was, in the words of the Wisconsin report to the governor, "to assist Congress in formulating a national policy" and "to present to the citizens of the state factual material available concerning displaced persons, their numbers, age, occupational and religious status, and present situation." Hence, this first phase was of a fact-finding and research nature. At the same time, it had an educational character inasmuch "as it helped focus public attention" on the problems of the displaced persons. The activities of the Wisconsin committee seemed typical of what happened in most states during this first phase. The Wisconsin committee set up three survey subcommittees—a church, an agricultural, and an industrial subcommittee. With the help of public and private agencies and through the financial contributions of several individuals and organizations, these three subcommittees determined to find out how many Wisconsin people had relatives in displaced persons' camps, how many were willing to help them with employment or housing, and what openings there might be for displaced persons in agriculture and industry. Lack of funds made a thorough and state-wide survey

impossible, but the findings indicated considerable desire on the part of the Wisconsin people to help displaced persons, even those who were not relatives. The data revealed, further, that about one thousand families could find employment and housing on the farms and that by May, 1949, there would be a shortage of about 7,500 workers in industry. In the estimate of the committee, between 7,000 and 10,000 displaced persons could be cared for in Wisconsin, half of them in farm areas.

The next phase of activity was directly related to the passage of federal legislation for displaced persons and comprises the period between June, 1948, and the first arrivals. It was clearly a phase of planning and preparation. The Wisconsin experience may again be used as an example. Its activities were of two types. On the one hand, they pertained to the relationships with the federal government, and, on the other, they consisted of co-ordination of local and state activities.

Once the national and the Wisconsin committees established contact with the newly created Federal Displaced Persons Commission, the Wisconsin committee became one of the Federal Commission's certifying agents in the state. The function of certification, incidentally, was assumed by all but one of the state committees. The Wisconsin committee also attempted to clear with the Federal Security Agency as to whether the displaced persons would be eligible for financial assistance. Once the FDPC had recognized the Wisconsin body as the accredited agency and had intrusted it with the resettlement of displaced persons in the state, the latter was left free to develop its own activities.

From the outset it conceived of its functions as those of a co-ordinating,

but not an operating, body. In addition to processing assurances for displaced persons sponsored by families who do not operate through church channels, the Wisconsin committee also makes it possible for information about the procedure and the necessary forms to be made available to interested persons. It also gives interpretative service to local groups, social agencies, etc., about the displaced persons program. All this was arranged in a fairly flexible manner.

Since actually very little local community action had been taken, especially in the rural areas, the committee, in addition to its planning functions, was placed in the position of carrying out services. The committee's policy regarding these services was that it would render such services wherever possible, provided they were not otherwise available. The survey shows that this experience is not unlike that of other state programs. These direct services are of three kinds: (1) solicitation, (2) education and interpretation, (3) local planning.

1. *Solicitation of employment assurances.*—Requests were solicited from the county agricultural agents and from the local offices of the state employment service, since both types of organizations were informed about the labor supply. Publicity through radio, press, speeches, etc., also became a means of solicitation.

2. *Education and interpretation.*—Plans were made for orientation classes, courses in English, and citizenship classes for the displaced persons. These were arranged through established educational channels in those localities that had vocational schools. In others, informal arrangements had to be made. Interpretative work was conducted also with the sponsors and community agen-



cies, such as churches and 4-H Clubs, which were mobilized in order to assist in helping to have the immigrants accepted by the community. As to counseling and other social services, plans were made to use the agency in the community best equipped to render the service.

3. *Local planning.*—In several instances the Wisconsin committee met with local groups and, in the case of Madison and Milwaukee, with a group organized by the Community Welfare Council to discuss the advisability of forming a local co-ordinating body for displaced persons.

These services—co-ordination on the state level, co-operation with the FDPC, referral and interpretation, and public relations—are the ones most frequently mentioned by the other state committees.

To make this statement of services more meaningful, perhaps a few statistics should be cited. Nine out of the fourteen states plan either now, or later, to keep records as a clearing-house for all displaced persons entering the state. Nine states plan to, or do now, consult with local or state bodies regarding the placement of displaced persons. Eleven states have undertaken or will undertake co-ordination with the accredited voluntary agencies. Ten states carry on or plan to carry on educational and interpretative activities for the community, but only two of them plan for the displaced persons themselves. Seven states intend to provide individual services for the displaced persons, mostly through the auspices of delegated local public and private agencies. No doubt these activities show thinking and imagination. Participation in some of these efforts indicates the need for continued interpretation to the local community

groups, some of which are by no means convinced that displaced persons require special consideration and advance planning.

This period of tooling, as it were, was possible largely because considerable time elapsed between the creation of the FDPC in August, 1948, and the first arrivals of displaced persons. Once arrival took place, the third phase of activity, that of resettlement, began. Again it is impossible to give an accurate over-all picture because of the variations from state to state. Each state adds its own personal touch which gives resettlement a characteristic flavor of its own. Let me quote the following excerpt: "... one of our duties is to meet the boats and give the official welcome. We usually greet the new Americans with a brass band, furnished by schools ... or by the Army or Navy."

Since the arrival of displaced persons is so recent, it is safe to say that a uniform pattern has yet to be developed. However, the older committees have had time to be prepared. Therefore, the Wisconsin activities may again be used as a typical example. Once the committee is notified of the newcomer's arrival in the United States, it is careful to make sure that he reaches his destination in Wisconsin. If need be, this is accomplished through the use of other agencies, such as Travelers Aid. Efforts are also made to visit the sponsor and the new family shortly after arrival. Before arrival, whenever necessary, individual visits have been made to the sponsors to ascertain that housing was adequate and working conditions satisfactory. In Wisconsin this preliminary service was carried on either by correspondence or through the county agent or, when a special question arose, through a personal visit by the committee's executive

secretary. The follow-up with the sponsor and the newly arrived persons in some instances reveals the need for a second placement. This means a removal from the present location for the sake of both the newcomer and his sponsor. This responsibility, too, is undertaken by the Wisconsin committee.

It is not possible to determine the number of displaced persons who have entered each state. The majority of them enter through auspices other than state committees. Records are usually based on steamer passenger lists and show only those who are going directly to a given state. Many are credited to the state of the port of debarkation, even though religious organizations may later resettle them in other states. Consequently, state committees are not always aware of situations that require service.

It is equally impossible to furnish a breakdown into occupational groups by states. Information on this point is scant, mainly because of the recent time of arrival. Occasional information from a few states indicates, however, that the majority of the arrivals fall into the agricultural group and that domestic skills are the group next in importance. This information brings out two points worth mentioning. One is that this occupational picture of the arrivals conforms with that of the displaced persons group, where agricultural and domestic skills are well represented. The other is that it would be fallacious to assume that for this reason their assimilation in the agricultural areas of the United States will proceed smoothly. This would be to overlook the fact that American farm methods are highly mechanized, whereas the farming of eastern Europe is much more primitive. Hence, to become American farmers, the newcomers will have to acquire new skills.

It is perhaps of interest to note that Massachusetts seems to lead in arrivals, with 1,000 entries listed. Minnesota, which can admit several thousand, has received only 320; and Wisconsin, which is able to accommodate up to ten thousand, has so far received only 549. In general, religious preferences have not been expressed, except by one predominantly Protestant state, where the arrival of many Catholics caused public reaction. Catholics and Lutherans are desired by two states. As to occupational groups, clear preference was expressed by ten states, six of which wanted agricultural labor, three domestic, and one wanted workers in the needle trades, especially tailors.

These figures, while they may convey a numerical picture, do not portray the human side of the story. "Statistics," says Arthur Koestler, "don't bleed." Just a few instances from the Wisconsin experience will, however, help us to realize what can be accomplished by advance planning and how useful skill and sensitive imagination can be.

Wisconsin, through the committee, has received fifteen families so far. They are mostly Ukrainians (Catholic) skilled in agriculture. They were placed on farms. One of them, Mitry, had become a meatcutter in Germany. He preferred this to farming, did not want to learn the use of farm machinery, seemed temperamental, etc., and, in brief, wished to leave and to return to Germany. He was finally returned to his nationality committee in Chicago. His wife was quite willing to stay. She had begun to adopt the ways of the farmer's wife but was also afraid of her husband and subject to his authority over her. It is difficult to ascertain the reason for Mitry's problem.

Certainly, some reactions such as his

must be expected. In vocational terms, a farmer in Russia cannot be equated with a farmer in the United States. Culturally speaking, the wife's willingness to assimilate American ways creates stress and conflict for herself and her husband. And there is also the psychological hazard which should not be overlooked. Psychiatrists have called the phenomenon of hostility to the country of refuge "displaced anger." This hostility is actually aimed at those who in the first place caused the newcomers to become homeless. It had to be repressed, for any outlet of such feelings would have been tantamount to courting death. This danger no longer exists, and the anger is now safely expressed against the new country, which takes the place of the original and real object of hostility. This phenomenon is not infrequently encountered by those who work with newcomers. To deal with it properly requires that it be recognized on the part of the state committees; and a good deal of interpretation to the local community, including the sponsor himself, is also necessary.

Sometimes interpretation is also necessary for the newcomer. Many have false ideas about the United States. One of them wanted factory work rather than farm work in order to get rich quickly and buy a car. In another case a visit was necessary to persuade a man that milking a cow was no threat to his dignity. (It would have been in Europe, where such a task is performed by a woman.) Another man, who had been photographed with the bishop, thought that working on the soil would make the bishop lose face. Still another felt unwanted because the welcoming farmer did not initiate a handshake.

All these may be minor matters, and

certainly to many social workers they are not news. However, the successful handling of these minor matters may spell the difference between acceptance and nonacceptance of the newcomer in his new home, and stopping them in time may prevent a major outbreak. Therefore, in Wisconsin a home visit is made, with an interpreter—and the usefulness of the interpreter cannot be enough emphasized. This visit occurs shortly after the arrival of the newcomer, and, if possible, these minor matters are straightened out. The visit, which is made by the executive secretary of the committee, also serves to check up on housing and employment arrangements.

In the short time after the newcomers' arrival, much has been learned. There is a good deal of distrust of official persons and of people in uniform. There is also great fear that present arrangements may be unstable, and there is a good deal of worry over deportation. One woman refused a linoleum rug because she thought that this would increase her indebtedness to her sponsor. Many seem eager to pay back their debts as soon as possible, at the risk of foregoing some daily necessities. Many of their actions reflect anxiety. For this reason, for instance, the committee hesitates to start a medical checkup, even though there is evidence of malnutrition and though there have been some admissions to tuberculosis sanatoriums.

There is also the problem of both too much and too little on the part of the community. The children usually attend school as soon as possible, and this meets with the wishes of the parents, whose educational background often is considerably higher than elementary school. Usually the churches are mobilized, 4-H Clubs welcome the children, and individ-

ual members of the community make the newcomers feel at home. In addition, there are plans for English and civics classes for the fall. The fact that rural schools in Wisconsin close in May presents a problem for the children during the summer. There is also co-operation with the local private agencies where they exist. This is no problem in the urban centers, such as Milwaukee, but in rural areas any counseling may have to be done by the committee or on a local, informal basis.

One feature, however, is felt to be potentially harmful. That is publicity in newspapers, radio interviews, and similar agencies. There is the danger that the American public, in its desire to "go all out," is doing more damage than good to a newcomer who cannot possibly understand that almost anything in American life is newsworthy; and he also may feel offended or gain the wrong perspective of living in America on the basis of a few atypical experiences.

The foregoing problems indicate that there is considerable need for knowledge of the newcomer's cultural background and interpretation of it to the recipient community. These problems also indicate the necessity for competent field staff and the co-ordination of all available services on the local level, including voluntary civic participation, for both interpretative and direct service purposes. This, in substance, seems to be also the feeling of several other state committees.

Another factor bared by the survey was the dissatisfaction of several committees with the federal law. It was considered "picayunish" and "narrow." However, the committees mentioned the co-operative relationship with the Federal Commission favorably. Some also

stressed the need for funds as a requisite for adequate service. They also mentioned the need for closer co-operative relationships with public and private agencies, for legislative provisions giving them a more solid and clear-cut base on which to operate, for more job information from employers, and for more staff for administration and field work.

Although the continued study of the administrative structure and programs of the state committees, as well as of the individual adjustment of the displaced persons, will no doubt yield rich data for a new chapter in the "saga of the immigrant," the present information nevertheless permits a series of tentative suggestions. Most of them are in line with the recommendations of the state committees themselves and are implied in the findings of this survey:

1. The state committee should secure clarification of their function and, if possible, legislative indorsement.
2. Funds should be appropriated in order to insure unhampered operation of the activities intrusted to the committees.
3. Co-ordination of existing community and state services should be the main task of the committees. Direct service on an individual basis should be undertaken only when no such local service is available, and then only with the hope that the community will eventually provide it.
4. A great deal of time and effort should be devoted to helping the local community recognize the need for co-ordinated planning, not only by making available to the displaced persons the regular services, but also by creating new ones to meet special needs.
5. Care should be taken, in view of pending federal legislation, that the

committees, which may well be considered temporary, not be disbanded too soon but be endowed with the broad powers which will make it possible for them to discharge their duties in a creative and flexible manner.

6. It is desirable that the participation of the citizenry-at-large be assured.<sup>3</sup> In addition, the displaced persons themselves may be asked to have a voice in the creation and administration of the services related to their welfare.

At a time when conformity seems to be so much in evidence as a highly regarded social goal, it is important to

<sup>3</sup> This might include the use, in an advisory capacity, of professional and occupational specialists who can assist in evaluating the training and skills and in planning the placement of the newcomers.

mention that we in America profess to be proud, also, of our cultural differences. The idea of the Melting Pot seems to have given way to cultural pluralism. If we are able to remember this, we will perhaps also be able to muster the courage and the emotional security to find ways and means of helping the most recent newcomers become Americans, not by having to deny their past, but by proudly enriching the large and colorful mosaic which is America. It is then that these people will no longer be displaced, either in their own eyes or in ours, but will occupy their rightful place in the multicolored skein of American society.

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN



## NOTES AND COMMENT BY THE EDITOR

### DR. LEONA BAUMGARTNER NEW ASSOCIATE CHIEF OF THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU

THE *Review* referred in an earlier issue to the appointment of Dr. Martha Eliot as assistant director-general of WHO, with headquarters in Geneva. Dr. Leona Baumgartner, the new associate chief of the Children's Bureau, will have special responsibility for the Bureau's health services. She will administer the Bureau's annual grants to the states to extend and improve maternal and child health services and services for crippled children. In addition, she will advise on the Bureau's research work and the reporting on the health needs of children and mothers.

A member of several advisory committees to the Children's Bureau, Dr. Baumgartner comes to the Bureau from the New York City Health Department, where she has recently been assistant commissioner. Prior to serving as assistant commissioner of health, Dr. Baumgartner was director of New York City's Bureau of Child Hygiene, where she supervised foster-homes, children's institutions, and day-care nurseries, as well as the department's health services for mothers and children. Trained as a pediatrician, Dr. Baumgartner has been on the pediatric staff of New York Hospital and is assistant professor of pediatrics, public health, and preventive medicine at Cornell Medical College.

The Federal Security Administrator, Mr. Oscar R. Ewing, said at her induction ceremonies:

Dr. Baumgartner brings to the far-flung health program of the Children's Bureau a leadership that has been enriched and matured by distinguished service to a community. She knows what it means to organize and maintain prenatal clinics, well-baby clinics, school-health services, and the many specialized treatment

services that mothers and children need for good health. Her practical knowledge of how to do a community health job will be immeasurably valuable in the Children's Bureau and to all of us in the Federal Security Agency.

### MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH AND CRIPPLED CHILDREN'S SERVICES

DR. LEONA BAUMGARTNER, the new associate chief of the United States Children's Bureau, in testifying last summer before a subcommittee on health of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, described the work that had been carried on for premature babies and explained that the services for premature infants had been established in many parts of the country and that the Children's Bureau was constantly being urged by physicians, hospitals, and citizens to help establish them in many other areas. In the first half of 1949, four states began new programs with the help of federal funds; other states, including Florida, Montana, Ohio, and Missouri, were making plans; and recent successful centers for prematures had been set up in Maryland, Louisiana, Colorado, North Carolina, and West Virginia.

Everyone will agree with Dr. Baumgartner that a premature baby who needs the special care that a good center can provide should be able to get it. "Approximately 215,000 babies were born prematurely in 1947. Nearly 40,000 of them died. Expert care could have saved over a third of these."

Dr. Baumgartner also dealt with the teamwork used in the crippled children's programs of the Children's Bureau. "Doctor, nurse, social worker, nutritionist, parent—each with a special skill—must work together." The difficulties usually encountered are lack of money to pay for care, shortages of doctors and hospital facilities,

and "which child on the waiting list gets care first."

The services of the Children's Bureau are also needed by the more than 160,000 children with cerebral palsy; the 500,000 children crippled by rheumatic fever and other heart conditions; something like 500,000 who are orthopedically crippled; 4,000,000 who are blind or have poor eyes; nearly a million who are deaf or have poor hearing; 35,000 who have diabetes; and 200,000 who are suffering from epilepsy. "These children and their parents have special problems, and great numbers of them usually need help."

It is probably true that in every state there have been improved services for mothers and children during the last ten years, since Title V of the Social Security Act not only restored but greatly enlarged the services that were provided by "Shepard-Towner" from 1921 to 1929. It is important to note that the doctors themselves do not oppose these services as they do health insurance in general.

Dr. Baumgartner asked, "Can we be sure that these services pay," and that this program is not an "impractical dream of professional do-gooders?" "Does it produce results in terms of dollars and cents, of lives saved, of added reserves of man and woman power for the Nation? Do we have more adults who can care for themselves, and fewer community liabilities as a result? In spending money for the cheaper and sometimes less dramatic prevention of diseases and disability," Dr. Baumgartner asked finally, "can we actually save money?" Her reply was that experience had proved that these programs do "pay," and she gave these examples:

Diphtheria, a dread disease at the turn of the century, was killing 40 persons out of every 100,000 of the population. Today [instead of 40] there is only one. This is the result of a preventive program of education and immunization of children.

The Hoover Commission in its report on the Federal Medical Services says that "some 50,000 more persons would have died of this disease in 1947 if the 1900 mortality rates had pre-

vailed. The 1947 cost to the Nation would thus have amounted to \$30,000,000. The actual expense was \$600,000."

Dr. Baumgartner said further:

Experts agree that the loss in infant lives due to diarrhea, or "summer complaint," decreased rapidly as doctors and nurses . . . educated the public to use clean milk and to take better care of babies. In large cities, for example, physicians and nurses went through the slums, often climbing up one building, over the roof and down the next one, telling mothers in every flat how to boil milk, sterilize bottles and nipples, how to take care of the sick baby. Mothers learned how to prevent disease, and thousands of babies' lives were saved.

Thus, we in the Children's Bureau have learned that this kind of program pays dividends. Because we know there is still need for these services in many areas, we are glad to see that Title VI of this bill provides for the first year \$25,000,000, an increase of \$14,000,000 over the present grants for maternal and child health; and \$25,000,000 for crippled children's services, an increase of \$17,500,000.

We know that three-fourths of our rural counties are still without regular maternity clinics, and many mothers living there go without the good maternity care which is the pride of American medicine. In 1946 there were still 177,690 mothers who did not have the services of a physician at the time of childbirth.

The American Academy of Pediatrics has just completed a Nation-wide study of child health. This study by the doctors themselves concluded "that a child's chances for survival depend largely upon where he lives and the circumstances of his parents." Children in or near cities, they found, receive 50 per cent more care than children who live in isolated areas. Rural children received less service of all kinds—hospital care, dental care, preventive service, including immunization. Does this lack of care help account for the fact that the infant death rate in some States is as high today as the national average was in 1921? Or that a baby's chance for survival is almost 3 times as good in one State as another?

<sup>1</sup> Committee on Federal Medical Services, *Federal Medical Services* (prepared for the U.S. Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government [January, 1949], p. 88).

Then Dr. Baumgartner also dealt with the situation in the crippled children's programs which she thought had assumed the proportion of a national tragedy:

In April, 1948, the States reported more than 22,000 crippled children on waiting lists—children whose condition has been diagnosed as needing treatment but who were not getting it, primarily because of the lack of funds. By December, 1948, the States reported . . . more than 30,000. . . .

The States indicate at least two major reasons why the waiting list is so large and why it is increasing. . . . The first is that hospital costs—a major expense in the treatment of crippled children—have almost doubled. With funds limited as they are by Title V of the Social Security Act, fewer and fewer children can and will be cared for unless additional funds are secured.

Congress has recognized this situation by making a deficiency appropriation of \$750,000 for the end of the fiscal 1949—but this sum is very inadequate. One reason for the increased number of children needing care is that the epidemic of poliomyelitis has greatly increased the need. "The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis has spent \$17,000,000 to provide care for many children during the acute stage of the disease, but it cannot provide treatment for residual paralysis and the long after-care needed to bring the child back to full recovery."

#### A \$20,000,000 INVESTMENT IN ASIA'S CHILDREN

**M**AURICE PATE, the executive director of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund tells us that Asia's children—who make up half the world's children—are coming into long-term benefits through UNICEF. Programs are under way, or soon will be developed, in what is described as a vast area from northernmost China south in a wide swing to the Indian Peninsula. Included are all parts of China; India, Pakistan, and Ceylon; Japan and Korea; the Philippines, Burma, Indo-China, Indonesia, and Thailand; Hongkong, Singapore, the Malayan Federation, North Borneo, Brunei, and Sarawak. In relation to

anything the Fund has ever before attempted this is "its most far-flung and complicated venture."

For this work, close to \$20,000,000 has been allocated by UNICEF, and this amount will be more than matched by the governments of the assisted countries, for these countries will bear most of the cost of operating the programs. UNICEF's contribution will be used mainly for supplies and equipment. The work, in all instances, is being directed toward the time when these countries can take over and expand the programs begun with the Fund's help.

The Fund's aid, by and large, is being concentrated on the following major undertakings:

1. BCG (Bacillus Calmette-Guerin) anti-tuberculosis vaccination and other tuberculosis control measures.
2. Practical, short-term training and equipping of child-health and child-welfare workers with the emphasis on building up teams to work in the towns and villages.
3. Malaria control demonstrations.
4. Nutritional demonstrations.
5. Yaws control.

With regard to the 4,000,000 of Europe's neediest children, we are told that UNICEF's "cellar" is well stocked for the winter:

By the time winter sets in over the European countryside, storerooms in the villages and towns will be well stocked with supplies of milk and fish-liver oil brought in by UNICEF. These supplies will be the mainstay of a supplementary meal for some four million children in Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Italy, Poland, Rumania, Yugoslavia. In addition, stocks of fish-liver oil are on hand for a million children in Germany.

The milk, which is all the dried skim product, came principally from Canada, and the United States. . . . Already, 20 million pounds have been shipped, and much more is on the way. Over 3 million pounds of cod-liver oil is coming from Canada and New Zealand; shark-liver oil is coming from New Zealand, by way of Canada, where it is put into capsules. The oil from the shark has far greater potency than that from the milder cod, and a little goes a long way. Consequently, it can be put in child-size capsules as is done in Canada, and it goes down fast. The cod-

liver oil is still given out by the spoonful—"Open wide." A dose of cod-liver oil would make too big a capsule for a child to swallow.

Along with the milk and the oil, the Fund has sent other good things for the winter: meat from Australia and South Africa; sugar from Poland, Cuba, Nicaragua, and South Africa; and coconut oil from the Philippines. The coconut oil is being processed in Czechoslovakia for distribution as a "spread" to Bulgaria. It is a favorite with the children, for it is as tasty as it is nutritious.

An item of another kind, but no less welcome, at least by those who look after the children, is a shipment of 3,000,000 pounds of soap from New Zealand. A lot of hands can be washed with 3,000,000 pounds of soap and a lot of children bathed, to say nothing of pots and pans and floors that need scrubbing. The soap shortage has been a day-by-day irritant to those who must not only keep the children clean, but also to the feeding centers, the clinics and the hospitals.

On their way, too, are 70,000 blankets from England and South Africa for distribution to the children in the Greek refugee camps.

Besides these provisions, stocks are on hand of dried whole milk for thousands of infants and distribution is nearing completion of shoes and clothing made up of UNICEF supplies shipped earlier in the year. The layettes, blankets, underwear, stockings, jackets, dresses and suits, and shoes are all being distributed free, and great care is taken to see that they reach the neediest of the children.

The two-year report on the work of UNICEF with the title "Consider These Children" was recently presented to the President of the United States by the chairman of the United States Committee for the Fund. This two-year report shows that more than two billion supplementary meals have been served to needy children in Europe, including Germany; China, India, the Philippines, Japan, Korea, and the Palestine area.

The report also stated that 17,500,000 children had been tested for tuberculosis and 8,000,000 vaccinated against it.

In its clothing program the Fund supplied to ten countries 5,782,126 pounds of cotton, 2,482,863 pounds of wool, and 2,983,877 square feet of leather.

Conducting nineteen training courses in two years, the Fund instructed 700 specialists in child care in modern methods.

### THE KIDNAPPED CHILDREN OF GREECE

Now that the guerrilla warfare in Greece is coming to an end and the ten long years of war and civil war are no longer threatening, the *New York Times* reminds us that there is one problem that calls for immediate action—the "return of the 25,000 Greek children kidnapped by the guerrillas and scattered [in other countries] . . . to be brought up as Communist janissaries for continued struggle against their own country."

The *Times* refers to the kidnapping of the children as the "reintroduction into Europe of a practice of the Dark Ages which has already aroused the protests not only of the Greek Government but also of the American and British Governments."

The *Times* editorial says further that there has been "a resolution by the International Red Cross urging the return of these children; and last November [1948] the General Assembly of the United Nations by a vote of 45 to none with no abstentions . . . 'recommended' such a return whenever the parents or close relatives asked it. This resolution called upon the members of the United Nations, the Secretary General and the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies to put the recommendation into effect."

However, in spite of these recommendations and protests, the countries that have the children pretend that they are "voluntary refugees from the 'terror' of the 'Monarcho-Fascists and Anglo-Americans' in Greece." The *Times* editorial says further:

The only country that has shown any signs of co-operation is Yugoslavia, which holds more than 10,000; the remaining satellites have either ignored the matter or refused action outright. Certainly after a lapse of nearly a year since the adoption of the United Nations resolution, additional action is now in order. It must be hoped

that the Assembly will find both the time and the courage to call the recalcitrants to account.

### GOALS FOR THE HANDICAPPED

MORE than two thousand persons were expected to attend the four-day meeting of the Annual Convention of the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, which, as we go to press, is scheduled to be held November 7-10 in New York. Delegates to the convention were expected from the National Society's two thousand state and local affiliates scattered throughout the United States, District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii.

Marking twenty-eight years of service for the Easter Seal Agency, the Society's annual meeting featured prominent authorities working in the field of the handicapped. Dr. John J. Lee, president of the National Society and dean of the graduate school at Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, was to preside at the opening session of the convention.

Lawrence J. Linck, executive director of the National Society, announced that among those to appear on the convention program were Dr. Anton J. Carlson, physiologist and professor emeritus of the University of Chicago, past president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science; George G. Deaver, M.D., president of the American Academy for Cerebral Palsy, physician in charge of physical medicine at New York University's Bellevue Medical Center; Leslie B. Hohman, M.D., professor of psychiatry, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina; Frank H. Krusen, M.D., head of the section on physical medicine at the Mayo Clinic and professor of physical medicine at the Mayo Foundation, University of Minnesota, Rochester, Minnesota, and others.

The convention theme was planned to be carried out in a series of educational exhibits that illustrate how the National Society, through its state and local affiliates, achieves goals for those handicapped—physically, mentally, socially, and vocationally—to lead

a normal life. The exhibits will also emphasize the Society's three-point program of education, research, and direct services.

The National Society directs a broad program of health, welfare, education, recreation, rehabilitation and employment for all physically handicapped persons regardless of the nature of their disabilities and does not duplicate the programs of other agencies. The program is based on a policy which holds that handicapped persons are a normal and ever-present part of society and are therefore entitled to every opportunity to contribute to society as useful citizens and to the limit of their abilities.

### HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE BLIND

THE American Foundation for the Blind has called attention to the evidence showing that advanced training is not denied to those who are blind. A recent report estimated that over five hundred blind men and women would study at American colleges this past autumn. Successful college work by the blind is by no means unusual, according to the Foundation's officials, provided that blind students possess the intelligence to meet the standards demanded by universities and colleges. However, the Foundation says that, while many sightless students are capable of meeting visual problems by their own ingenuity, there are numerous technical aids which will make their college studies less difficult. We are told that the Technical Research Department of the Foundation "has invented or adapted a number of devices which include a slide rule for touch reading, a recording machine to enable students to study from plastic discs, measuring devices, radio analyzers, interval timers and, when available, braille writing machines." This year the newest device is the raised-line drawing pad, on which drawing or writing can easily be made on the top surface of a sheet of cellophane clipped against a rubber pad. Drawing is done with a ball-point pen which produces a raised line on the right side of the "paper" and is easily read by the fingertips.

For the music student there is for the first



time a "musicwriter" which allows the sightless composer to write a simple tune at the rate of a page of music in twelve minutes.

"The Foundation's Technical Research Department was recently set up to meet the problems of blind students, technicians or household workers. It provides tools for carpenters, machinists, engineers, tradesmen, physiotherapists, darkroom workers and mathematicians. In the field of recreation it has packs of brailled playing cards and specially adapted chess and checker sets. For the blind housewife there are brailled pressure cookers, liquid thermometers, paring knives, hem markers, needle threaders and brailled tape measures."

It is impossible to read the statement of the Foundation for the Blind without feeling encouraged and hopeful about this handicapped group.

#### A WORLD LABOR FEDERATION

ON NOVEMBER 29, 1949, a new World Labor Organization finally became a reality. The combined labor organizations forming the new federation represent forty-seven million workers, mainly in Europe, Great Britain, and North America. Representatives of free labor in the world met in London to adopt a constitution for a new world federation of which both the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations are members.

The *Life and Labor Bulletin* of the Women's Trade Union League comments as follows:

The main objective of the new organization is "to develop a labor movement free from communistic influence, free to deal with government as well as with industry." The motivating factor behind this world federation is to "more closely unite workers of all nations so that peoples of the world will have an understanding of their respective problems, thereby creating stronger ties of brotherhood and comradeship to the greater benefit of all mankind in raising living standards and relieving fear, hardship and suffering." According to a member of the preparations committee, the federation would be governed by a congress that convenes every two

years. Representation will be based on membership up to 5 million members, with groups having more than this number, like AF of L and CIO, being entitled to 10 delegates each. It is likely that headquarters of the new organization will be located somewhere in Europe.

#### EXPANDING STATE SAFETY PROGRAMS

EXPANDED service to state labor agencies in industrial safety and health, labor legislation, and implementation of international labor standards will be rendered this year by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Standards, of which William L. Connolly is now director.

Services for child labor and youth employment, which for the past two years have been the responsibility of the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts divisions, have also been transferred by congressional action to the Bureau of Labor Standards. Enforcement of the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, however, remains in the Wage and Hour Division.

Originally a part of the industrial division of the Children's Bureau, this program of research into child labor conditions and employment opportunities for young workers was transferred to the Bureau of Labor Standards in the reorganization of July, 1946. A year later it was moved to the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts divisions. Still later this work was returned to the Bureau of Labor Standards, to be integrated with that agency's basic program, the promotion of all labor standards.

The Eighty-first Congress also restored the authority of the Bureau of Labor Standards to conduct safety training courses for state factory inspectors, a policy not adequately provided for in last year's appropriation act. Classes in these subjects are scheduled in a half-dozen states—Georgia, Florida, Maryland, New Jersey, Oregon, and Rhode Island—in the near future. These six states were expected to have their programs under way by September, 1949, and twenty-two other states have indicated that they

would like to have provision for similar training during the year.

The basic training course consists of five weekly sessions ranging from elementary to advanced safety subjects. Individual sessions are normally given at intervals of 4 months, giving State safety staffs an opportunity to gain practical field experience between instruction periods.

Increased personnel will also permit the Bureau of Labor Standards to step up its State service on special industry safety programs. Latest such program to be completed by the Bureau is for the reduction of hazards in scrap iron and steel operations. The nature of such operations, in most scrap yards usually small, is quite hazardous and lends itself well to safety programs promoted through the staffs of State labor agencies. The Scrap Iron and Steel Institute, through its county-wide membership is extending full cooperation to State labor departments participating in these programs.

One such plan began in New York under the sponsorship of the State labor department's division of industrial safety. The engineering and safety division of the New Jersey Department of Labor will inaugurate its program in September.

The Bureau's staff has also been expanded to meet greater responsibilities toward States in implementing international labor standards adopted by the International Labor Organization. The newly amended ILO Constitution recognizes the place of the States under our Federal-State system in enacting basic labor laws and therefore their role in bringing their laws in line with ILO standards or reporting the extent to which, by law or practice, they meet them.

### THE 1950 WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE

A "WHITE HOUSE Conference on Children" has been called to be held some time during the latter part of 1950. This is the fifth White House Conference on Children held under the auspices of a president of the United States. The first was called by Theodore Roosevelt in 1909, the second by Woodrow Wilson in 1919, the third by Herbert Hoover in 1930, the fourth in 1940 by Franklin D. Roosevelt. Each of these conferences produced important results in

pointing the way for improved conditions for children. Mr. Ewing, Federal Security Administrator, said recently: "I see in this 1950 White House Conference an opportunity for the people in this country, including those in the professions dealing with children, to come together, to work, to plan and to act in behalf of the Nation's children. The contributions of the conference, I would expect, will have significance not only to children of the United States, but to children throughout the world." The general purpose of the conference has been stated as follows:

During the past year and a half many national organizations, as well as representative leaders, were asked for advice regarding the major emphasis and scope of the Conference. State-wide planning bodies for children were encouraged to focus their attention on preconference activities. By mid-1949 groups were at work in 35 States, the District of Columbia and Hawaii on broad planning for children.

As a result of this preliminary work seven objectives for the conference will be considered by the National Committee. They are:

1. To focus attention on our concern for children and youth in a world in which spiritual values, democratic practice, and the dignity and worth of the individual are of first importance;
2. To bring together, in usable form, our present knowledge about the status of children, their physical, mental, emotional, and moral development; and identify areas in which further knowledge is needed;
3. To point up the needs of parents in providing adequately for their children; and suggest ways of helping them do a better job;
4. To look at the physical, social, economic, and moral environment in which children are growing up; and recommend ways of improving it;
5. To size up present services for children and youth; map the direction in which services should develop; point up ways in which the number of qualified workers can be increased and the skills of these workers sharpened;
6. To examine into the ways people are now working together for children; and develop ideas for more effective teamwork;
7. To initiate steps for the achievement of the Conference recommendations in the coming decade.

## CHILD LABOR CERTIFICATES

THE minimum age for general employment under the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act is sixteen years, and it is eighteen years for occupations that have been declared hazardous by the Secretary of Labor. The Secretary has announced the redesignation of forty-four states as states whose age, employment, or working certificates or permits are accepted as proof of age for young workers under the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Included also are the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. Under a recent regulation of the Secretary of Labor, these certificates are also acceptable as proof of age under the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act.

By obtaining State certificates in the States and jurisdictions designated, employers protect themselves from unintentionally employing underage children. Employers in the other four States—Idaho, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Texas—have similar protection through obtaining Federal certificates of age issued in those States.

Inspection experience under the Fair Labor Standards Act has shown that less than 4 per cent of the certificated minors were found employed in occupations illegal for the age shown on their certificates. In contrast, 30 per cent of the minors found employed without certificates were working in violation of the act's child-labor provisions.

## WHY CHILDREN LEAVE SCHOOL

THE National Child Labor Committee has published a valuable pamphlet under the title, *Early School Leavers: A Major Educational Problem*,<sup>1</sup> by Harold J. Dillon. Of the 1,700,000 students who entered high school in the ninth grade this fall, only about one-half will remain to graduate four years from now.

"The fact that our schools fail to hold such a large proportion of our young people is well known," said Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand, general secretary of the National

Child Labor Committee. "Schools, parents, employers, social agencies, and law-enforcement officers are all aware of it, but what is lacking is knowledge of why it is so and what can be done about it." The committee, therefore, undertook a detailed study of a representative sampling of the young people in five communities, totaling 1,360 individuals, who had voluntarily withdrawn from school the previous year. Firsthand information was therefore obtained as to the causes of school-leaving and as to the "warning signs" of the probability of school-leaving, as a basis for determining what measures the schools might take "to increase their holding power."

The communities included in the study were Cleveland, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Lansing, and Jackson County, Michigan. These communities, the report states, were selected because they contained representative cross-sections of the population, and because the schools offered the full co-operation needed in conducting such a study.

The family backgrounds of the school-leavers, on the basis of information obtainable from school records, showed nothing that might make them more likely to leave school than thousands of others who complete a full high-school course, the report says. Findings on this point are that the proportion from broken homes was not abnormally high (71 per cent lived with both parents, as compared with the national United States Census figure of 81 per cent for children fourteen through seventeen years of age); the school-leavers were not handicapped by frequent changes of residence, as 83 per cent were born in the state where they went to school and 80 per cent attended school in the same local school system from the first grade until they left; their parents, while not in the upper-income groups, appeared to be typical of the average American wage-earner.

What the school records showed about school-leaving, according to the report, is that potential school-leavers are characterized by regression in attendance and in scholarship as they advance in school; that the majority are grade-repeaters, beginning

<sup>1</sup> Pp. 94. \$1.25. Copies may be obtained from the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, N.Y.

in the elementary school in 70 per cent of the cases; that they have frequent transfers (two-thirds had three or more transfers exclusive of normal-progress transfers); and that more than one-quarter participate in extra-curricular activities.

The findings show that the majority, 54 per cent, leave school at sixteen years of age, that another 26 per cent leave at seventeen years, and that, further, the great majority leave prior to completing the tenth grade. Intelligence ratings from school records show 40 per cent of the school-leavers to be normal or above normal (I.Q.'s of 95 or over) and 60 per cent to be below 95. "It can legitimately be assumed," according to the report, "that the 40 per cent were educable in programs of secondary education as now constituted. Nearly one-fifth of them had I.Q.'s above 105, which is generally recognized as adequate for post-high-school education." As for the 60 per cent with more limited intelligence, the report points out that "in many school systems throughout the country, students in this intelligence range complete high school successfully as a result of curriculum adaptation and other measures which stimulate their interest and enable them to experience the satisfaction of achievement."

It is important to know what the children said and the reasons given for school-leaving obtained from the school-leavers by interviewers. When asked to give their reasons in order of importance, the children gave replies which show that reasons relating to school were given as the primary cause by the largest group (70 per cent) and economic reasons by the second largest group (21 per cent). Reasons relating to school included such statements as "preferred work to school" (given by 36 per cent, or the largest single group), "was failing and did not want to repeat grade," "disliked certain teacher," "disliked certain subject," "not interested in school work," "could learn more out of school than in school."

Most of the school-leavers, according to the report, make their decisions to leave school and find their jobs without consulting school authorities. Frequent comments were

that "nobody in school" was interested in them and they had "nobody to turn to for advice or help." As a result, the report thinks that

it seems clear that the majority of school leavers go ahead on their own in taking this important step and that they do not think of the teacher or counselor as someone to turn to for help in making decisions. Regardless of who it is within the school who might be helpful to the individual, the fact that youth do not see the importance of discussing their problems with someone attached to the school staff before withdrawal from school is tragic and costly for them and for society. Another unfortunate fact is that teachers and counselors are frequently so overburdened with other and less important tasks that their knowledge of the individual student is too limited to enable them to give him any real help if he asked for it.

Among the jobs obtained by the school-leavers when they first left school, sales and factory work predominated. Approximately one-third of them held three or more jobs during their first year out of school. Apparently something like 95 per cent of the children and young persons obtained their jobs either by "shopping around or through friends," and "the fact that so large a number had three or more jobs might point to lack of counsel in job selection as a factor in instability." About half regretted having left school and half did not. Their "recommendations of changes that might have encouraged them to remain in school included curriculum adaptation, such as work experience programs and specific vocational instruction and more help on personal problems from teachers and counselors."

Specific recommendations in the final chapter of the report are that there should be "a good record system" kept up to date and used, the student should be "known as an individual," and the student's confidence should be sought and he should be given some personal recognition. Early signs of trouble should be recognized, counseling should begin in the elementary school, and enough professionally trained counselors should be available at all levels to advise with teachers, students, and parents on individual student problems. It is pointed



out that an educational program should be provided in which the students can "experience achievement"; a relationship between education and life should be demonstrated; social experiences should be extended to "help overcome feelings of insecurity"; provision for above-average students should be made, for their "below-average performance may indicate either need for program changes or help with personal problems." Parent interest in the school should be developed so that there will be co-operation with teachers and counselors. Finally, it will be necessary to secure public support of an adequate educational program.

"The chief emphasis throughout the recommendations," the report concludes,

is on the need for better knowledge and understanding of individual children, since the evidence pointed to this as the basic problem in school leaving. While it will take time and planning to meet the needs of each individual student in our school systems, every school, with a little extra effort, can initiate some changes in the present program to serve a greater number of youth more adequately than it is now doing. Educational programs of the right kind, adequately supported, are the most economical and effective measures that can be taken to conserve our human resources.

This report is important for all social workers with families, for one of their most important services must be work with children and young persons to help them become secure and satisfied and useful when help can no longer be found to keep them in school and it is finally necessary for them to go to work. Keeping children in school is more important than all our case work, for it should mean that case work for these children as adults will be unnecessary.

#### FOOD FOR CHILDREN OR A BALANCED BUDGET

AS WE go to press, social workers in Chicago and the state of Illinois are gravely concerned about a 10 per cent cut in relief grants and a 5 per cent cut in aid to dependent children, ordered by the Illinois Public Aid Commission. Strangely enough, the or-

der to cut these budgets comes at a time when unemployment is increasing and greater assistance funds are needed. Illinois relief budgets are fixed biennially by the legislature. Appropriations are made on recommendations based on estimates of need prepared several months before the appropriation is finally voted.

During the "relief crises" of the 1930's, when the money appropriated for relief ran out, a deficiency appropriation was voted when necessary, to finance the months that were not provided for. But the present Illinois state administration is committed to a "balanced budget," and the IPAC is trying to carry on and follow this policy:

For the biennium ending June 30, 1951, the state legislature appropriated \$265,465,000 for public aid to be disbursed through the IPAC. The figure includes \$158,307,929 from state revenue and \$107,157,071 in federal money.

Of the \$265,465,000, about \$43,000,000 was set aside for general relief purposes, \$56,000,000 for ADC, and the rest for old age pensions, blind assistance and administrative costs. But the biennium began while unemployment was going up.

For July, the IPAC authorized release of \$1,799,834 to Chicago and other local governments for general relief purposes. The August allocation will run about \$2,069,124. If the rest of the appropriation were divided evenly among the remaining 22 months, the amount available would be only \$1,762,940 a month. So the IPAC ordered the cut.

Alvin E. Rose, Chicago relief commissioner, said the 10 percent slash in state grants would mean a cut of 20 to 25 percent in the food budget of 45,016 on the Chicago relief rolls, since fixed expenses such as rent, light and fuel couldn't be cut.

Joseph L. Moss, Cook County welfare director, said that 35,277 children would have to eat less in this important county because of the 5 per cent ADC cut. Since food budgets already had been figured at the minimum necessary to maintain health, the cut means a dietary deficiency.

Earl J. McMahon, secretary-treasurer of the Illinois State Federation of Labor, and William A. Lee, president of the Chicago Federation of Labor, asked Gov. Stevenson to rescind the cut.



The labor leaders suggested the health needs of the relief clients and dependent children be met first, and the deficiency in the budget be made up later. As Mr. Rose expressed it: "We are now in the ironic position of having millions of dollars in the cash drawer without being able to give our people enough to eat."

### CENTENARY OF A SCHOOL FOR BOYS

**O**CTOBER, 1949, was the one hundredth anniversary of the opening of what is now called the New York State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry, New York, and appropriate public ceremonies were held at the school.

There had been three earlier institutions, each called a "House of Refuge," for delinquent youth in New York City, Boston, and Philadelphia; but they were all private agencies. An act of the New York Legislature on May 8, 1846, authorized the establishment of "a House of Refuge for juvenile delinquents in Western New York." The first boy was received at the House of Refuge on August 11, 1849, and this became the first state-operated and state-controlled institution of its kind in the United States.

In 1886 a "school of technology" was opened, with classes in carpentry and joinery, blacksmithing, plastering, bricklaying, and foundry work; and the name of the institution was changed to the State Industrial School. Sixteen years later the school was given its present name and was moved from Rochester to its present location at Industry, Monroe County.

In the one hundred years since it was established, the school has been responsible for the care and training of more than twenty-nine thousand boys. In contrast to the early days, when contract labor, corporal punishment, and congregate-care buildings were characteristics of the House of Refuge, boys at the school today live in cottage-type facilities and receive training, treatment, education, recreation, and vocational guidance designed to rehabilitate them and restore them to a normal way of life. The school receives boys under sixteen

years of age from all sections of the state outside New York City and Orange County. The school is administered by the State Department of Social Welfare. The commissioner of the department, Robert T. Lansdale, wrote the following statement regarding the school's report of "one hundred years of public service":

This is the record of a vision born one hundred years ago, and how that vision has helped thousands of boys threatened by pressures of life.

The substance of that vision was the removal of boys from prisons and jails, from environments of adult crime, to wholesome surroundings where they might learn useful occupations, receive helpful guidance, and grow to maturity improved in body, mind and soul.

The vision became real with the establishment of the Western House of Refuge in 1849. It grew stronger when the House of Refuge, with its iron bars and narrow cells removed, and its contract labor and corporal punishment abolished, became the State Industrial School. The School boasted a system of classification, the first program of technological training in America, and the discipline of military training. The vision developed further, projecting the day of a cottage plan in the country, where small groups and close personal guidance could better influence youthful minds, where there would be no restraint of high walls and congregate buildings, and where life would be more healthful and more natural. The State Agricultural and Industrial School was established.

The vision grows, and so does man's service to his younger, troubled brothers. As long as institutions have a place in the rehabilitation of distressed youth, that vision will spark the efforts of those who devote themselves to this challenging task. To all who have served in building this great public service institution, this record is dedicated.

### WOMEN IN THE EIGHTY-FIRST CONGRESS

**I**T IS more than twenty years since the first woman, Jeannette Rankin, was elected a member of Congress, and this was before the woman-suffrage amendment had been accepted. In recent years there have been more women elected, but the numbers remain very small. The United States Women's

Bureau has issued a useful seven-page statement about the nine women now serving in the Eighty-first Congress—one in the Senate and eight in the House. To begin with the woman senator: Mrs. Margaret Chase Smith, Republican from Maine, had been for nearly nine years a member of the House of Representatives from Maine's Second District, and she became in 1948 the second woman elected to a full term in the United States Senate and the only woman elected to a full six-year term without first being appointed. Born in Maine in 1897, she has been a teacher, an executive for the Maine Telephone and Telegraph Company, and an executive in various business organizations. She had served as her husband's secretary, and after his death in 1940 she was elected to his seat in the House and has been re-elected to every Congress since then. In 1944 she was chairman of the Maine State Republican Convention. Also during that year she served as one of thirteen advisers to the United States government delegation to the International Labor Conference meeting in Philadelphia. The statement from the Women's Bureau continues:

At her request she was placed in 1943 on the House Naval Affairs Committee. . . . She was also a member of the House Naval Affairs Subcommittee on Congested Areas. . . . She was the first woman member of the important Armed Services Committee of the House and, as chairman of the Armed Services Medical Subcommittee, was the first Member of Congress to obtain unification of legislation requested by the Army and by the Navy. In the fall of 1947 she was assigned by the Armed Services Committee to an inspection trip through European countries.

In the 1948 primary in Maine Mrs. Smith polled, as a Senatorial candidate, a record vote over three opponents. . . . In the present 81st Congress she is a member of the District of Columbia and of the Expenditures in the Executive Departments Committees. As chairman of the Health and Public Welfare Subcommittee of the District Committee she is the only Republican in the 81st Congress, either House or Senate, to be chairman of a committee or a subcommittee.

While she is a champion for women, Mrs.

Smith says she is not a feminist. She believes, that "a woman's viewpoint should be objective and free of any emphasis of feminine interests." It is important, though, she thinks, for more women to qualify for public office, for responsibility for good government rests equally on men and women. As a word of encouragement she says, "We can't all be Members of Congress and the Senate, but there must be good people working all down the line, on school boards, civic organizations, community chest boards, church groups, and community projects. . . . We must remember that America has been made great, not from Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington, but from the Main Streets in our villages."

Three of the eight women in the House, like Mrs. Smith, succeeded to the positions of their husbands after the latter had died.

Unofficial "dean" of Congresswomen, by virtue of seniority, is Mrs. Mary T. Norton, Democrat from New Jersey. Mrs. Norton has served in the U.S. House of Representatives continuously since 1924. Born in 1875 in Jersey City, she attended public schools there and took a secretarial course in a New York City business college, after which she worked as a secretary until 1909, when she married Robert Francis Norton.

After her marriage she is reported to have been active in child welfare and Red Cross work and served as the chairman of one of the largest Red Cross units in the State of New Jersey during World War I. Because of her outstanding work in these social service groups, Mayor Frank Hague suggested in June of 1927 that she represent Hudson County women on the State Democratic Committee, and in 1923 she was elected Freeholder in Hudson County, the first woman to be so elected in New Jersey. Her work on the State Committee and as a Freeholder led to her election to Congress in 1924. She has served as vice-chairman and later as chairman of the State Democratic Committee, and from 1924 to 1948 she has been a delegate at large to the Democratic National Convention. In 1944 she served as co-chairman of the Platform Committee and in 1948 as chairman of the Credentials Committee of the Convention.

In 1930 Mrs. Norton became the first woman ever to head a Congressional committee—the House Committee on the District of Columbia, a position she held for seven years. She was head of the important

House Labor Committee for ten years prior to the Eightieth (Republican-controlled) Congress, when she resigned from the committee. As its head, she had helped to steer through Congress several major labor laws, including the Fair Labor Standards Act, which established a minimum wage rate for employees of firms engaged in interstate commerce. In 1945, President Truman appointed her government representative and adviser to the International Labor Conference in Paris.

Mrs. Norton is at the present time chairman of the House Committee on House Administration. She is the only Member of Congress who has served as chairman of three committees of Congress.

Mrs. Edith Nourse Rogers, Republican from the Fifth District of Massachusetts, has been in Congress since 1925.

Mrs. Rogers has an especial interest in veterans' affairs which dates back to the First World War, when she served in France with the YMCA and the American Red Cross. From 1918 to 1922 she was a Red Cross worker at the Walter Reed Hospital in Washington, D.C. In recognition of her work for veterans' welfare, President Harding appointed her in 1922 as his personal representative in charge of assistance for disabled veterans, a position to which she was reappointed by Presidents Coolidge and Hoover.

She was elected to the House of Representatives of the Sixty-ninth Congress, in 1925, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of her husband, and she has been re-elected to every succeeding Congress. For years she served as the ranking Republican member on the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House. She was a delegate to the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace at Mexico City in February, 1945. In the Eightieth Congress she was chairman of the House Committee on Veterans Affairs; at present she is ranking minority member.

Mrs. Frances P. Bolton, Republican from Ohio, has been in the House since 1940. She was born in 1886 in Cleveland, Ohio, and

was educated in private schools in the United States and in France. In 1907 she was married to Chester Castle Bolton and is the mother of three sons and has eight grandchildren. She has had an active part in philanthropic and civic activities in Cleveland, especially in public health services. Active in both public health nursing and nursing education in Cleveland, Mrs. Bolton endowed the School of Nursing of Western Reserve University. She is an honorary member of the alumni of the Army School of Nursing because of the part she played during World War I in its establishment.

Mrs. Bolton has served on various party committees—on the Republican State Central Committee in Ohio from 1938 to 1940 and as vice-chairman of the National Republican Program Committee from 1937 to 1940. Elected in February, 1940, to the House to fill the unexpired term of her husband, she has served continuously since then. At the beginning of World War II, prior to the establishment of the United States Cadet Nurse Corps under the Bolton Act, she was instrumental in securing funds to increase the teaching capacity of many schools of nursing.

Mrs. Bolton has been a member of the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives since January 1941. As chairman of the subcommittee having to do with National and International Movements, Mrs. Bolton was the first woman to take a committee out on a field trip. Her supervision of the work of this subcommittee in the preparation of a report on "The Strategy and Tactics of World Communism" and a supplement containing a report on "Communism in China" has been a contribution receiving wide recognition.

Mrs. Helen Gahagan Douglas, Democrat of California, was first elected to Congress in 1944 and was re-elected in 1946 and 1948. Born in 1900 in New Jersey, she was educated in private schools and had attended Barnard College for two years when she left for a star part on Broadway. After several years in Europe she returned to the United States in 1930 and again starred on the stage, where she met Melvyn Douglas, to whom

she was married in 1931. Mrs. Douglas has two children.

After she returned from a concert tour of Europe in 1937, Mrs. Douglas became actively engaged in civic affairs. She served on the National Advisory Committee of the Works Progress Administration and on the California State Advisory Committee of the National Youth Administration. In 1940 she was elected Democratic national committeewoman for California and was appointed vice-chairman of the Democratic State Central Committee in 1941. She was also elected chairman of the Women's Division of the Democratic State Central Committee and in 1942 was re-elected vice-chairman of the State Central Committee. In July, 1946, she was appointed as an alternate United States delegate to the General Assembly of the United Nations. She is a member of the House Foreign Affairs Committee.

Mrs. Katharine St. George, Republican from New York, was born in England, where her father was European editor of *Forum* magazine. Since the age of eighteen, however, she has lived in Tuxedo, New York. Married to George Baker St. George in 1917, she has one daughter and two grandchildren. Her interest in politics is said to be "of long standing." She was a member of the Tuxedo town board for fifteen years, and for twenty years she was a member of the Tuxedo Board of Education, serving for a time as its president. She was one of the first women to be elected chairman of a Republican county committee in New York State and in 1944 was a delegate from Orange County to the Republican National Convention; and she has held various other public positions as member of the New York State Agricultural Society and the Orange County Home Bureau, member of the Orange County chamber of Commerce, and chairman of the Tuxedo chapter of the American Red Cross for ten years and an officer for twenty years. During World War II she was a representative on the WAC recruitment program and member of the board of governors of the New York Military Service Club. She is now

a member of the Post Office and Civil Service committees of the House.

Mrs. Chase Going Woodhouse, Democrat from Connecticut, after first serving in the Seventy-ninth Congress, was re-elected to the Eighty-first Congress, defeating the Republican to whom she had lost her House seat in 1946. She is a scholar and has done graduate work in the University of Chicago and abroad; she also had a career as an economist, having taught at Smith College, the University of Texas, Teachers College (Columbia University), Connecticut College, and elsewhere and having served as senior economist of the United States Bureau of Home Economics.

Her first venture into politics was as candidate for the City Council of New London. She served for many years as president of the Connecticut Federation of Democratic Women's Clubs and in 1941-1942 was elected Secretary of the State of Connecticut. While in Congress in 1946-1948 she took an active part in legislation concerning the Bretton Woods Agreements, the British loan, housing, and legislation affecting the Consumer.

From February 1947 to April 1948, between her terms in Congress, Mrs. Woodhouse was executive director, Women's Division, Democratic National Committee. She resigned this position to become a visiting expert in Germany for the Secretary of the Army; there she helped develop understanding among German women of their rights and responsibilities as citizens of a democracy.

In the 81st, as in the 79th Congress, Mrs. Woodhouse is a member of the Banking and Currency Committee of the House of Representatives.

Mrs. Woodhouse is the mother of two children and has two grandchildren.

Mrs. Reva Beck Bosone, Democrat, born in Utah, is serving in Congress for the first time this year. Mrs. Bosone was graduated from the University of California. Beginning her career as a teacher, she later received an LL.B. degree from the University of Utah and has been a member of the bar since 1930. Mrs. Bosone has one child.

A member of the Utah State Legislature from 1933 to 1935, Mrs. Bosone was responsible for

the passage in that state of the Child Labor Amendment and the State Unemployment Insurance Law, and she was the author of the State Minimum Wage and Hour Law for Women and Children. The only woman ever elected floor leader in the Utah State Legislature, she was also the first woman ever named to the important Sifting Committee, through which all bills had to pass before they reached the floor, and she became its chairman.

Elected in 1936 to the Salt Lake City bench, she is the first woman ever to preside in a Utah court. As her initial assignment she took over the Police Court, where her handling of traffic cases was so outstanding that when, under the city's rotating system, the time came for change of assignments, every traffic safety and civic organization demanded that she continue her traffic work. She was elected to her third term as a city judge in 1945. In recognition of her public service in the rehabilitation of alcoholics and juvenile delinquents, Mrs. Bosone was named to the Utah Hall of Fame in 1943.

In the 81st Congress she is a member of the House Committee on Public Lands and of the Subcommittee on Irrigation and Reclamation, Territories and Insular Possessions, and Indian Affairs.

Republican newcomer to Congress this year is Mrs. Cecil Murray Harden, representative from Indiana. Born in Indiana in 1894, she attended public schools there and, later, she attended Indiana University. Until her marriage to Frost P. Harden in 1914, she was a teacher in Indiana.

Mrs. Harden has been active in political party work since 1932, when she was elected a precinct vice-committeewoman. Since 1938 she has been county vice-chairman for a congressional district and a member of the State Central Committee. Elected in 1944 a Republican national committeewoman for Indiana, in 1948 she was a member of the Arrangements Committee for the Republican National Convention and also a delegate-at-large from Indiana. She became a congressional candidate when appointed to replace a Republican candidate who withdrew to accept a judgeship. She was elected to the Eighty-first Congress and is now serving on the House Veterans Affairs Committee.

Mrs. Harden is said to be a popular speaker and has taken many engagements for the Indiana Republican State Speakers' Bureau and the Republican National Committee Speakers' Bureau. Active in many local, civic, and national affairs, she is a charter member of the Business and Professional Women's Club, DAR, the Indiana Federation of Women's Clubs, and the American Legion Auxiliary.

The Hardens have one son, Dr. Murray E. Harden, and three grandchildren.

Although the number of women in Congress is still very small, it is slowly increasing, and, while four of the nine members of the House and Senate owe their positions to their ability to succeed to their husband's position after his unexpected death, five achieved election independently. This shows an increasing interest and success of women in politics.<sup>1</sup>

#### NEW EQUAL-PAY LAWS

**D**URING 1949, four new equal-pay laws were enacted. One of these was for Alaska; the others, for California, Connecticut, and Maine. This means that there are now Alaska and twelve states—California, Connecticut, Illinois, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Montana, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Washington—which have equal-pay laws on the statute-books.

California prohibits an employer from paying a woman employee "at wage rates less than the rates paid to male employees in the same establishment for the same quantity and quality of the same classification of work." Connecticut's general nondiscrimination measure prohibits the employer from "discriminating in the amount of compensation paid to any employee solely on the basis of sex." Both set strict time limits within which a legal action may be brought against the employer—six months in California, one year in Connecticut.

<sup>1</sup> Since this was written, there has been another woman elected to the House, Mrs. Edna Kelly, Democrat, of New York's Tenth District.



Women's organizations, trade-unions, and other groups which have pioneered in the movement for equal pay for equal work still have a job to do, in the opinion of Frieda Miller, director of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor.

Miss Miller thinks that we must first see that equal-pay protection for women workers is extended to the thirty-six states which now have no statutes on the subject and that we must continue to work for the enactment of a federal equal-pay law. Such measures were introduced in the Seventy-ninth, Eightieth, and Eighty-first Congresses. Miss Miller reminds us that, except for organized workers covered by equal-pay clauses in union contracts, numerous women are doing the same work as men in the thirty-six states without equal-pay protection and with no assurance that their pay will equal that of men.

"This 'unequal' pay system not only constitutes an unfair practice where women are concerned, but carries with it a real threat to the wages of men," Miss Miller has said. "It can result, in fact, in the ultimate displacement of the higher paid workers or in their acceptance of so-called 'women's rates' of pay." And she added:

A Federal law providing equal pay for women workers would immediately bring this guarantee to women in numerous interstate businesses and indirectly lend support to the movement for enactment of State laws to cover other workers. Such a law would not . . . eliminate the need for State legislation, since large numbers of women are employed in stores, laundries, offices, and other local establishments which do not come within the scope of Federal legislation.

#### WOMEN WORKERS IN GERMANY

THE Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor reports that two of our authorities on the problems of working women have been sent to Germany to study the status of women workers there. Miss Pauline Newman, educational director of the health center of the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union, and Miss Sara E. Southall, who recently was profes-

sor at Fisk University and for many years was the well-known personnel manager of the International Harvester Company, were invited jointly by the Manpower and the Women's Activities divisions of the Office of Military Government of the United States to survey and to report on the present position and problems of women in the German economy and in their social and political relationships. The two investigators were to survey conditions in both the British and the American zones, including employment and training situations, management policies, and trade-union activities, consulting directly with the leaders of the German women. There will be great interest in the report of these two competent investigators, and it is to be hoped that it will be made available without any long delays.

#### INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION OF WOMEN

THE Inter-American Commission of Women, of the Organization of American States, held its Sixth Assembly in Buenos Aires in August, at the invitation of the Argentine government. The twenty delegates (all of the American republics except Costa Rica were represented) approved a number of recommendations concerning the economic, civil, and political status of women and reported on the progress of women in their own countries.

The Assembly recommended that two phases of a study on the economic condition of women workers of the American republics be completed for the Tenth Conference of American States, to be held in 1953: (1) maternity legislation and practices and problems under this legislation and (2) the financial responsibility of women workers for their families. A resolution on equal pay requested governments to strengthen their equal-pay laws and to appoint women and men in equal numbers to committees which make decisions on "equal work"; another was concerned with improving wages of women in woman-employing industries and

women's opportunities for supervisory and administrative positions.

Through the Council of the Organization of American States, governments will be asked to ratify the conventions on political and civil rights for women. Delegates will work in their own countries to eliminate discriminatory clauses against women from civil codes.

Other resolutions dealt with the inclusion of civics and political courses in school and adult-education curriculums, with the strengthening of women's organizations, and with making possible an interchange of women leaders.

The Commission will now have an executive secretary and staff in its offices in the Pan-American Union. Miss Mary M. Cannon, chief of the International Division, Women's Bureau, who is the United States delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women, attended the Assembly in Buenos Aires.

### IRO

EVERY social worker is interested in the plight of the refugees—which continues to be very serious. The director-general of the International Refugee Organization, J. Donald Kingsley, has recommended that the work of IRO be extended for an additional year after June, 1950, the date set for bringing the organization to an end. The *New York Times* reports as follows:

The recommendation submitted to the general council of the IRO calls for operations on a greatly reduced budget during the additional year to clear up almost completely the problem of displaced persons.

Mr. Kingsley's recommendation is based on a thorough re-examination of the so-called hard core of the problem, which indicates that the number of persons wholly unsuitable for resettlement is much smaller than hitherto supposed. Mr. Kingsley set their number at not more than 50,000. Previous figures have averaged around 150,000.

Speaking of persons hitherto classed as hard-core cases, Mr. Kingsley said: "I would estimate that with time and effort at least one-third of this group could be resettled." He added that

there was an increasing hope that a large number of the remainder could be resettled on compassionate, if not on economic, grounds.

It was understood in IRO circles that Mr. Kingsley's proposal to continue the agency had been made on the basis of consultations with governmental representatives, including the United States.

There are indications that the United States is leaning to the view that it would be better for the IRO to complete its job even if it takes a little longer than expected. The United States' attitude here is to wait to see what the IRO proposals are, bearing in mind the problem of convincing a reluctant Congress to appropriate funds for a fourth year.

Although the official press release refers to Mr. Kingsley's suggestion for a "fourth year" of IRO, the organization actually has been in existence just fourteen months. Operational activities were begun in July, 1947, by a preparatory commission, but until August, 1948, the organization operated under the handicap of not having had its constitution ratified by enough governments to put it into effect. The United States was more than a year late in ratifying.

If the IRO succeeded in disposing of the displaced persons' problem by June, 1951, it would have done so in just under three years of existence as a full fledged specialized agency of the United Nations. Nevertheless, Congress would be asked for its fourth appropriation.

Mr. Kingsley did not name the amount for the fourth-year budget, but judging from the number of refugees remaining to be resettled it would be about one-third of the present \$140,000,000 budget.

In a possible precedent for other international agencies, the British Government representative agreed today that British contributions to the budget should be increased to compensate for the devaluation of the pound. However, he made the reservation that if sterling costs (in the case of the IRO, chiefly shipping) did not rise by the full 30 per cent devaluation any excess should be applied against future contributions.

### THE SECOND MENTAL HEALTH ASSEMBLY

THE Second Mental Health Assembly of the World Federation for Mental Health, which met in Geneva last August, has announced some plans for the coming

year. Dr. J. R. Rees (England) was appointed director-general, and the new president of the Federation is Dr. André Repond of Switzerland, who succeeds Dr. Rees.

The vice-president for 1949-50 is Dr. William Line of Toronto, Canada. Dr. Frank Fremont-Smith (U.S.A.) has submitted his resignation as treasurer, and Dr. M. K. el Kholy of Egypt has accepted the post of acting treasurer. Dr. George S. Stevenson, medical director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, remains as a member of the executive board, and Dr. Leo H. Bartemeier of Detroit has been appointed to the executive board as an alternate. Dr. Kenneth Soddy (England) was appointed secretary. The offices of the Federation will continue to be located temporarily at 19 Manchester Street, London, W. 1, England.

All member associations throughout the world were invited to send delegates and observers. Several hundred attended, among them a delegation of at least forty from the United States.

Prior to the Assembly the Federation had fifty-one member societies drawn from thirty-two countries. More member societies were admitted in August, among them three additional associations from the United States. The United States membership includes the following: American Association of Mental Deficiency; American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers; American Neurological Association; American Nurses' Association; American Orthopsychiatric Association, Inc.; American Psychiatric Association; American Psychoanalytic Association; American Psychological Association, Inc.; National Committee for Mental Hygiene; National League of Nursing Education; National Mental Health Foundation; National Organization for Public Health Nursing; Society for Applied Anthropology; Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues.

The World Federation for Mental Health was granted consultative status in the World Health Organization and in UNESCO at the close of the International Congress on

Mental Health in London in 1948. It is said to have thus "set up a two-way traffic with governments," since it can pass on the results of modern studies to appropriate government departments and since it is being informed of topics that governments would like to have investigated and is distributing these to appropriate research groups and universities.

The report of the International Preparatory Commission, prepared last year from studies made by societies and discussion groups in the various countries sending delegates to the conference, embodied important recommendations on the prevention of mental illness, and WHO has incorporated most of these in its program. The international Preparatory Commission, of which Mr. Lawrence K. Frank was chairman, proposed a preliminary study of the methods used in various countries for dealing with mental ill health and maintaining mental health. Member associations of the Federation have already begun this work, and it is thought that UNESCO may gather more data in the course of their studies of comparative cultures. An estimate of existing social agencies for the care of the mentally ill was also proposed, and a survey of the incidence of mental ill health in its broadest sense will probably be undertaken. A highly practical proposal was that teachers should be sent to train workers on the spot in backward countries and areas. Students brought from such areas to study in advanced and well-equipped countries and then sent back to battle with primitive conditions are apt to despair and give up the struggle.

Thus the World Federation for Mental Health has made a useful and important beginning. As with so many organizations, its difficulties are largely financial. To maintain an office and secretariat at Geneva and to bring the executive committee from the ends of the earth twice each year calls for an annual income of \$120,000. A British contributor recently gave £2,500 for three years toward the salary of a medical director; and the Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation, of the United States, has just offered \$15,000 a year for three years. The donation is to be made without conditions for the first year but, after that, it will be given only if the

Federation can raise \$60,000 yearly by its own efforts. In the meantime, it is difficult to develop policies until the Federation knows what its income will be. However, its work is clearly important and very promising as to future developments.

#### ANNOTATED CENSUS BIBLIOGRAPHIES

NATIONAL Censuses and Vital Statistics in Europe, 1939-47—A Supplement," the fourth in a series of annotated Census bibliographies, has been released by the Census Library Project and will undoubtedly be useful, as the preceding reports have been. Reference material published in an earlier issue, "National Censuses and Vital Statistics in Europe, 1918-39," is continued through 1947, and also listed and described are all official censuses, as well as serial and other official publications containing demographic and vital statistics issued by the governments of the several European countries. The *American Statistician* comments as follows with regard to these bibliographies:

In addition to the European bibliography, the Census Library Project has compiled and published the following annotated bibliographies: "General Censuses and Vital Statistics in the Americas" (1943); and "State Censuses, 1790-1948" (1948). A "Catalog of United States Census Publications, 1790-1945" is now in preparation.

The Census Library Project was initiated in 1940 as a co-operative project of the Bureau of the Census and the Library of Congress in accordance with a resolution passed by the Eighth American Scientific Congress. The original scope of the Project contemplated the collection of census and vital statistics materials of the world and making these data available for research and operational use. These general objectives have been redefined somewhat by the demands for service in this field. At present the continuing functions of the Project are: (1) to co-operate in the completion of the Library of Congress collections in the fields of census and vital statistics for all areas of the world; (2) to achieve world coverage through census bibliographies in order to facilitate the use of the collec-

tions of such documents in the principal libraries of the United States; and (3) to act as a reference service for government agencies and the general public.

#### NEW WELFARE PAMPHLETS AND REPORTS

SOME interesting pamphlet material, reports, and briefer books that we have not had space to review have been received in the *Review* office, and we are glad to list some of them here for the benefit of our readers.

The Greater New York Fund has published *Our Welfare Needs: A Study of New York City and Its Boroughs, Showing the Social and Economic Factors Affecting Relative Need for Health and Welfare Services*, by Bertram J. Black, research consultant, under direction of a subcommittee of the Fund (New York, 1949; pp. 49 plus 29 maps). According to the study, Manhattan outranks the other boroughs in having the greatest number of overcrowded dwellings, the greatest need of major repairs and plumbing, the highest proportion of persons needing public assistance, the highest death rate, and the highest annual infant and maternal mortality rates. Also it has the highest incidence of tuberculosis, the largest number of delinquent children, and a high record of truancy investigations. Although Manhattan appears in greatest need, there are very great needs in the areas of every borough. Frederick W. Gehle, executive director of the Fund, in his Foreword to the study points out that it was designed primarily to guide the Fund in determining whether the Fund's plans of distribution are working as effectively and equitably as possible.

*Standard Budget for Kansas City Area*, prepared by the Standard Budget Committee of the Family and Child Welfare Council of the Council of Social Agencies of Kansas City, Missouri, and the Social Planning Council of Wyandotte County, of Kansas City, Kansas (Council of Social Agencies, 1023 McGee Street, Kansas City, Mo.; pp. 89) is a budget set up for a family of four, including husband, wife, adolescent



boy, and younger girl. It was prepared to meet the needs of private and public agencies. A guide for directing and counseling families in meeting their needs, it is a guide for those persons responsible for economic assistance to families. It is not a luxury budget or a subsistence budget, but an attempt has been made to describe and measure a modest but adequate standard of living. The family's physical, psychological, and social needs were considered when the budget was planned.

A third edition of *A Study of the Support of State-wide and National Social Welfare Agencies by Massachusetts Communities* has been published. This study proposes an orderly state plan for handling the multiplicity of appeals which may confuse the contributing public (Massachusetts Community Organization Service, 3 Joy Street, Boston; pp. 25; \$0.50).

*The Commonwealth Fund Thirtieth Annual Report for the Year Ending September 30, 1948* (New York, 1949; pp. 48) is "concerned with the importance of mental health in medicine and other health services and with efforts to clarify the underlying principles of medical education." It also has sections on rural hospitals and medical research. One of the recent pamphlet publications of the Commonwealth Fund is *Human Relationships in Public Health: Report of an Institute on Mental Health in Public Health*, by Geddes Smith (pp. 18; \$0.15).

*The Rockefeller Foundation: A Review for 1948*, by Chester L. Barnard, president of the Foundation (New York City, 1949; pp. 69) lists, among the highlights of the year, progress in public health and medicine, the role of the humanities, studying normal people, and Central European rehabilitation.

Another interesting report comes from the American Friends Service Committee, its *Annual Report for 1948*, by Clarence E. Pickett, executive secretary, whose long-time useful work has been noted before in these pages (20 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia 7, Pa.; pp. 21).

The Health Education Council, 10 Down-

ing Street, New York, has issued *A Method of Study in Health Education*, which is Part I,<sup>1</sup> "Preface on Method of Study" of "How To Live Longer" (Ph.D. thesis, Columbia University), by Justus J. Schifferes (1949; pp. xxxii; \$1.00). *Food for Health as We Grow Older*, containing timely facts and interesting ideas about which foods continue to be important for health and why; the choice to make for economy and appetite appeal; how to plan meals at home for one or two persons; how to select good meals in a restaurant; and other related topics, has been issued by Nutrition Service, Community Service Society, 105 East 22d Street, New York 10, N.Y. (pp. 40; \$0.25). "Services for the Blind in Arkansas," by Mattie Cal Maxted, department of social work, University of Arkansas, has been issued in reprint form from the *Arkansas Historical Quarterly*, VIII (1949), 78-94. The University of Arkansas has issued the same author's "Welfare and Health Agencies in Arkansas" (1948; pp. 93; mimeographed).

The new edition of *How To Become a Citizen of the United States*, by Marian Schibbsby and Read Lewis, a handbook of information published by the Common Council for American Unity, New York City, brings together in convenient form detailed and up-to-date information on each step of the naturalization process, including 131 specimen questions and answers for applicants (1949; pp. 96; \$0.50).

*Social Surveys: A Guide for Use in Local Planning* has been prepared by the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds, Inc., New York City, to meet the needs of their member agencies throughout the country. It is believed that "it may be some use to other agencies also engaged in practice or study of community organization" (1949; pp. 29; \$0.50).

*Housing Legislation in New York State, 1949*, prepared by the Committee on Housing of the Community Service Society of New York City, is a summary of the more

<sup>1</sup> Part II, *How To Live Longer*, is published by E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, as a Health Education Council book (\$3.00).

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important housing bills introduced in the 1949 session of the New York state legislature, along with a statement of the position taken by the Society's Committee on Housing (1949; pp. 56).

*The Court and Correctional System of the State of Pennsylvania*, with a directory of judges and probation officers, parole officers, and penal officials; state departments, statewide agencies and institutions for custodial and protective care, edited by Leon T. Stern, has been published by the Pennsylvania Committee on Penal Affairs of the Public Charities Association (Room 619, 311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia, Pa., or 519 Smithfield Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.) (10th rev. ed.; 1949; pp. 52; \$0.50). "Aims and Practices in Penal Treatment," by Thorsten Sellin, editor of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, is available as a reprint from the *Yearbook of the Northern Associations of Criminologists, 1947-1948*.

A valuable report and program under the title *Children Absent from School* comes from the Citizens' Committee on Children of New York City, Inc. (136 East 57th Street, New York; pp. 116; \$1.00). Other child welfare pamphlets are *An Announcement of the Findings and Recommendations of a Three-Year Nationwide Study of Child Health Services* (The American Academy of Pediatrics, Evanston, Ill.; pp. 24); *Child Health Services and Pediatric Education* (Reprinted from the *Quarterly Review of Pediatrics*, May, 1949, pp. 95-104); *Emotional Security of the Child: A Guide for Religious Leaders* by Othilda Krug-Brady, M.D. (Joshua L. Liebman Department of Human Relations, Hebrew Union College-Jewish Institute of Religion, Cincinnati, 1949; pp. 15; \$0.50); *Impact of the War on the Family and Children in Metropolitan Salt Lake: Report of the Utah Preparatory Commission Submitted to the International Congress on Mental Health, London, August 12 to 21, 1948*, Arthur L. Beeley, convener; Louise Browning, secretary ("University of Utah Publications of the Institute of World Affairs") (1948; pp. 35); "Children Receiving Foster Home and

Institutional Care in Allegheny County, December 31, 1947," is the fourth census of such children, the earlier censuses having been undertaken in 1933, 1936, and 1938 (Bureau of Social Research, Health and Welfare Federation of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, 1949; pp. 63).

Finally, there are the *Proceedings of the First Conference of Southern Field Division of the National Urban League, Held in Atlanta, Georgia, at the Trevor Arnett Library, May 5-7, 1949* (National Urban League, Atlanta 3, Georgia; pp. 75+Appendix; *Chronology of the United Mine Workers of America Welfare and Retirement Fund* (United Mine Workers of America Welfare and Retirement Fund, 907 Fifteenth Street, Washington, D.C., 1949; pp. 15); *Changing Clientele of the Planned Parenthood Clinic of Pittsburgh, 1932-1947*, a study made by the Bureau of Social Research of the Pittsburgh Health and Welfare Federation, issued by the Planned Parenthood Committee and Clinic of Pittsburgh, Inc. (1949; pp. 11); *Capsules of Social Wisdom*, by Edward Alsworth Ross (Chapel Hill, N.C., Social Forces, December, 1948; pp. v+41; \$1.00); *Toward Building a Better America*, by Frank Altschul, chairman of the National Planning Association Committee on International Policy ("Planning Pamphlets," No. 69) (Washington, D.C.: NPA, 1949; pp. 19); *Guidance Counselor*, by Leland H. Chapman, in the series "American Occupations Monographs" (Boston: Research Publishing Co., 1949; pp. 32; \$1.00); and the twenty-fifth anniversary issue of *Canadian Welfare* (January 15, 1949), the official publication of the Canadian Welfare Council, deals with a quarter-century of social welfare in Canada. A special issue (April, 1949) of the *Welfare Accountant* (Bulletin of the New York State Association of Public Welfare Accountants) is entirely devoted to "Preparation and Use of Charts," by David M. Schneider, director of the Bureau of Research and Statistics, New York State Department of Social Welfare (pp. 20). The *Bulletin of the World Federation for Mental Health* (No. 1,

February, 1949), published bi-monthly by the World Federation for Mental Hygiene, organized in August, 1948, with founder members from twenty-one countries (19 Manchester Street, London, W. 1; \$1.00 per year) will serve as a means of transnational communication in the field of mental health.

New periodicals received are the *Statistical Bulletin of Israel* (Vol. I, No. 1, July, 1949), edited by the Central Bureau of Statistics and published monthly by the Government Printer, Hakirya; the *Agricultural Economist* (Vol. I, No. 1, November, 1948), "an independent premier monthly news journal devoted to agriculture, rural economics and welfare in India and Asia," published in Bombay.

#### NOTES FROM THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

AS WE go to press, plans for the thirty-first annual meeting of the American Association of Schools of Social Work are under way, and the present plan is for a meeting in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, January 22-25, with the University of Wisconsin in general charge but with a large group of school and agency representatives in Milwaukee and Madison helping with plans and arrangements. Ruth Smalley, of the University of Pittsburgh, is chairman of the Program Committee.

The AASSW was one of the organizations that lost its old quarters when the Russell Sage Foundation gave up its building on East Twenty-second Street, and we have no word as yet regarding a new location<sup>1</sup> for the AASSW except that it is hoped that space may be found near the American Association of Social Workers. Retrenchment in the Association's program and staff has been necessary, but the national staff still consists of an executive secretary, an assistant executive secretary, an administrative assistant, a secretary-bookkeeper, and a clerk-typist. A staff of five is not bad for an or-

<sup>1</sup>The address is now reported to be 1 Park Avenue, New York 16.

ganization of this kind, but it is said that this full staff cannot be held beyond January unless additional funds are secured.

Margaretta Frisbee, consultant on pre-professional education, left the AASSW staff with the termination of the Field Foundation grant and has joined the faculty of the University of Illinois Division of Social Welfare Administration.

Miss Sally Gano, recently medical social work consultant at the Orthopedic Hospital in Los Angeles, who holds a Master's degree from the University of Southern California, has been added to the faculty of the University of Wisconsin Department of Social Work to supervise a medical social work training program, sponsored jointly by the Department of Social Work and the Medical School.

Adelphi College, Garden City, Long Island, is opening the first-year program of a regular two-year graduate curriculum in social work with Alexander Handel as dean. Mr. Handel has studied in the University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration, and his most recent position was that of director of New York City services at the United Service for New Americans, Inc.

The State University of Iowa, Iowa City, is opening the first year of a two-year School of Social Work program, with Wayne Vasey as director. Mr. Vasey was on the staff of the Russell Sage Foundation before going to Iowa to do the preliminary work for opening the school.

In June, 1949, St. Patrick's College, University of Ottawa, Canada, opened a School of Social Welfare with the Reverend Swithun Bowers, O.M.I., as director. Ottawa is planning a two-year program, with students placed for block field work in the United States as well as in Canada. Father Bowers is a graduate of the New York School of Social Work.

It is reported by the AASSW that the School of Social Welfare, Louisiana State University, is now fully accredited as a two-year school; that the University of South Carolina has been admitted as a

one-year school; that Washington State College has closed its School of Social Work but that its second-year program during the academic year 1948-49 was certified as the equivalent of second-year work in accredited schools; that the University of Hawaii, Our Lady of the Lake College, and the University of California (Los Angeles) were all planning to open their second-year programs this fall and were expecting to apply to have these programs accredited at an early date.

The University of Pennsylvania is accepting students this fall in a program leading to the degree of Doctor of Social Work; Smith College School of Social Work opened its advanced third-year program this summer with six full-time students.

The Graduate School of Social Work at the University of Utah has added a second graduate year of training leading to the degree of Master of Social Work.

The Veterans Administration reports that more than two thousand World War II veterans are studying to become social workers in colleges and universities under the G.I. Bill and the Vocational Rehabilitation Act. In the field of social work, less than half the veterans are enrolled under the G.I. Bill, while the remainder are taking their training under the Vocational Rehabilitation Act.

Robert W. Kelso, director of the Institute of Social Work of the University of Michigan, has retired, and Arthur Dunham is serving as acting director of the Institute. Another change is reported from Western Reserve University—Mr. Donald Wilson has resigned, and Margaret Johnson is again acting dean.

The New York School of Social Work has finally been moved from the old Sage Foundation Building to its new headquarters at 2 East Ninety-first Street.

Social workers in the Baltimore area are said to be working to establish a school of social work there with the co-operation of the Maryland chapter of AASW and the Council of Social Agencies committee.

The National Council on Social Work

Education was scheduled to meet in New York City last October with our Association represented by Mr. Kidneigh of Minnesota, Miss King and Miss Spencer of the AASW, Miss Wright of Chicago, and Mr. Youngdahl of St. Louis.

The Hollis "Study of Social Work Education," sponsored by the National Council on Social Work Education, is not available as we go to press.

Houghton Mifflin Company is publishing a series of books on social work, with Marion Hathway, of the University of Pittsburgh School of Social Work, as general editor. Two new volumes are *The American Social Security System*, by Eveline M. Burns, of the New York School of Social Work, and *Social Group Work Practice*, by Gertrude Wilson and Gladys Hyland, of the Pittsburgh School.

The director of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, Miss Frieda S. Miller, was one of fifteen women to receive an honor scroll from the National Council of Negro Women at its annual Honor Day event on June 19. The presentation was made to Miss Miller for outstanding achievement in international fields of human and labor relations.

Various announcements have been made of grants from the Fulbright Act, which authorizes the Department of State to use such foreign currencies and credits as are acquired through the sale of surplus property abroad for programs of educational exchange with other nations. With only foreign currencies available, grants to foreign nationals to come to the United States are limited to round-trip travel; expenses in this country must be met from other sources.

As we go to press, it is expected that the program with the United Kingdom will provide for 100 British students for attendance at American colleges and universities during the current academic year, as well as for 250 British and American elementary- and secondary-school teachers to be exchanged under the British-American teacher-exchange plan. The *Department of State Bulletin* also announced that awards to Americans, which

may include round-trip transportation, tuition or a stipend, and a living allowance, were expected to be made to approximately 100 students and 37 professors and research scholars for study, teaching, or research in the United Kingdom during the current academic year.

Early in the summer the State Department reported that eight American scholars, selected by the Board of Foreign Scholarships to receive awards under the terms of the Fulbright Act, were leaving for the Philippines, New Zealand, Burma, and Greece to undertake teaching or research.

Americans interested in applying for Fulbright awards for graduate study should write to the Institute of International Education, 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York. For teaching at the college level, for advanced research, and for teaching in American schools abroad, they should write to the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington. For teaching in national elementary and secondary schools abroad, they should apply to the United States Office of Education, Washington.

### THE GRACE ABBOTT FELLOWSHIP IN PUBLIC WELFARE

ANNOUNCEMENT FOR 1950-51

A public welfare fellowship of fourteen hundred dollars for the academic year 1950-51 is offered by the national Delta Gamma fraternity in honor of the public services of Grace Abbott, who was a member of Delta Gamma when she was a student at the University of Nebraska.

This fellowship is open to any woman graduate of an accredited American college or university and may be used at any approved school of social work; but preference will be given to candidates who have been employed in the public welfare service and who plan to return to the public service. The fellowship will be awarded in May, 1950, by a committee of Delta Gamma alumnae, including Mrs. Arthur H. Vandenberg, of Washington, D.C., and Grand

Rapids, Michigan, honorary chairman; Mrs. George Bowerman, The Ontario, Washington, D.C., chairman; Miss Blanche Garten, Lincoln, Nebraska, secretary; Mrs. E. Tiel Smith, president of Delta Gamma, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, ex officio, a member of the committee; and Edith Abbott, the University of Chicago. Miss Mildred Arnold, of the United States Children's Bureau, and Miss Agnes Van Driel, of the Public Assistance Bureau of the Federal Security Agency, will again serve as consultants for the committee in making the award for 1950-51. Applications should be filed not later than April 15, 1950. Applicants who filed before may wish to apply again.

*Application blanks may be obtained after January 1, 1950, from the secretary of the committee: Miss Blanche Garten, 1827 A Street, Lincoln 2, Nebraska.*

### IN MEMORIAM

EMILY W. DINWIDDIE

1879-1949

EMILY WAYLAND DINWIDDIE, of Greenwood, Virginia, was one of our social work pioneers who was active for many years in Red Cross and child welfare work. She was also an early worker for good housing. She came to New York in 1903 and for seven years was with the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society. The board of directors of Trinity Church were greatly impressed by Miss Dinwiddie's account of the miserable tenements from which Trinity profited. As in the case of Octavia Hill and the London tenements of the Church of England, the Trinity directors made Miss Dinwiddie the supervisor of their tenement property. She was to visit the tenements, report on the conditions as she found them, and make whatever recommendations she thought necessary.

"She draws her salary for bringing soap and sunshine into Trinity's tenements," one

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Trinity official said in describing the results of her work. Before she gave up this work as tenement supervisor, Trinity had razed 180 tenement dwellings, had replaced them with new structures, and had become known as a model landlord. Her report on the Trinity Church tenements of New York resulted in the reforms inaugurated by Bishop William T. Manning when he became the rector of Trinity.

During World War I, Miss Dinwiddie went to France for the Red Cross and was in charge of organizing a social service ex-

change in Paris. Upon her return to this country she served as director of information service for the Red Cross.

The position she held in 1940 was that of state assistant superintendent of relief and supervisor of child welfare services, Kansas Emergency Relief Committee. Her published works include *A Tenants' Manual*; *Housing Conditions in Philadelphia*; *Trinity's Tenements*; *Suggested Housing Standards for Families of Small Incomes*; *Virginia State Hospitals for Mental Patients*; and various articles in professional journals.



## LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

### THE CARE OF BRITAIN'S OLD PEOPLE

#### *To the Editor:*

Old people in Britain are living longer than they used to do, but they are finding much to interest them in the evening of their years—for successful efforts are being made to improve their lot, to make them happier and healthier. The National Health Service Act, which came into force in July, 1948, provides all types of medical care for them. The National Assistance Act, which provides for financial help from the National Assistance Board for those in need, gives local authorities new responsibilities for finding accommodation for old people.

Formerly it was the duty of Britain's local authorities to make provision for the destitute aged. Now they have to take care of all who can be described as in need of care and attention.

Even before World War II the local authorities had begun to break up the old Poor Law institutions and to make smaller, more comfortable, and less "institutional" homes. World War II interrupted this work; but, after it had ended and before the National Assistance Act was passed in July, 1948, local bodies were asked by Britain's Ministry of Health to do what they could to make the lives of the old more comfortable, by exchanging big dormitories for smaller rooms, providing pleasanter furniture, and generally giving more individual freedom to old people. When the National Assistance Act came into force, it became the duty of local authorities to prepare programs showing what they intended to do in this direction. They have become enthusiastic about their programs, and their proposals continually reach the Ministry of Health, while work is progressing. Smaller buildings, where, for example, the old folks can help in the garden and do their own washing-up if they wish and, indeed, feel really at home, are favored.

These measures are not covering an entirely new field. Voluntary organizations have worked with this aim for years, and their efforts have been acknowledged and encouraged by the government, so that statutory and voluntary workers now co-operate splendidly in their aim of assisting the aged.

Co-ordinating the work of a number of voluntary organizations, the National Old People's Welfare Committee was established by Britain's National Council of Social Service during the winter of 1940-41. The visits of Assistance Board officers, following the introduction of the Supplementary Old Age Pension in 1940 (which added more money to the statutory ten shillings a week in certain cases), revealed that many old people were living in most unsuitable conditions, were lonely, and needed care. After much work, therefore, the NOPWC in 1945 became an autonomous group in association with the NCSS "to study the needs of old people and to encourage and promote measures for their well-being." The committee brings together in consultation all the principal bodies, both statutory and voluntary, concerned with this work. Local and county committees have opened many homes and clubs. In addition to establishing homes and other organizations for the benefit of old people, the Church Army, the Salvation Army, and other religious bodies, the Women's Voluntary Services, the British Red Cross Society, the Soroptimists, Rotary, and Inner Wheel clubs visit lonely people in their own homes. The WVS and BRCS, especially, are opening clubs and running "Meals-on-Wheels" services.

How deserving the old people are of these services was clearly shown by the Nuffield Foundation's inquiry, made in Wolverhampton, Staffordshire, England (a suitable sample city), early in 1945. The Report of this inquiry was published by the Oxford University Press in 1948. The visitors discovered such cases as these: a woman in the early sixties working a ninety-hour week as a nurse, walking several miles a day, no holiday for eight years; a man aged sixty-seven, a hawker of vegetables, rises at 4 A.M., pushes his loaded barrow of five-and-a-half hundredweight on a round of five miles, and does all the housework for his ailing wife; a man aged seventy in full employment as an engine-driver; a widow of eighty, having reared six children in widowhood while earning her own living, now looks after her son, a permanent invalid, and does all her housework, cooking, and shopping; a man eighty-one, still working eight

hours a day as a skilled wood craftsman, in addition to gardening in the evenings.

There is a balance preserved between what the voluntary bodies do on their own account in their work for old people and what they do with financial assistance through the local authority concerned. The local body may give a grant to the voluntary committee for setting up homes or it can use the homes already established by a voluntary body and pay so much per head for old people's maintenance. The local authority can also make a grant to a voluntary body which undertakes particular services for old people living in their own homes—notably "Meals-on-Wheels" and the provision of recreation facilities such as old people's clubs.

To insure that care provided is of a reasonable standard, the registration and inspection by local authorities of homes for the aged is to begin shortly. This does not imply that there is "old-people-farming," like "baby-farming" in the bad old days; but it is thought that, while it is open to people to earn a living by running such homes (and charges do not enter into this survey), the food and accommodation provided must maintain a certain standard.

Attention is paid to the situation of a family as a whole in working out the new schemes. Both government and voluntary bodies are careful not to undermine family responsibility. People's old folk are their own responsibility, and it is interesting to find cases where local authorities provided accommodation for old people for short periods while the younger mem-

bers of the family go away for a holiday. Holidays are organized for the old people, too, sometimes by exchanging homes in different districts.

In spite of the recreational ideas, crafts, and occupational therapy provided for their welfare, as old people grow older still, without requiring special attention, they need more and more care of the kind appropriate to the infirm; and to this, all the services pay regard. In all the Ministry of Health's regional offices there are officials who give guidance on welfare services for old people. Britain's new Housing Act, too, provides powers for local authorities to build hostels for the aged with a central restaurant and other communal facilities.

The recreational and training schemes of the NOPWC, the home-help schemes (to supplement what is done by the local health authorities), and the shopping volunteers are doing much to brighten old people's lives. As members of the "Darby and Joan" and similar clubs, old men and women enjoy social activities. There are, too, the geriatric clinics, developing within the National Health Service, where the old folk are receiving attention which rejuvenates them physically. "Age is opportunity" says the National Old People's Welfare Committee; and, certainly, there seems to be a fortunate turn in the affairs of the aged in Britain.

ROSE PATTERSON

LONDON, ENGLAND

## BOOK REVIEWS

### *American Foundations and Their Fields, VI.*

Edited by WILMER SHIELDS RICH and NEVA R. DEARDORFF. New York: Raymond Rich Associates, 1948. Pp. 284. \$6.00.

The modern American foundation is unique. It has been defined as "a non-governmental, non-profit organization having a principal fund of its own, established to maintain or aid social, educational or other activities serving the common welfare." The "principal fund" (except in the case of community trusts) is usually given by one individual; it is "owned" and administered by an independent board of trustees or directors especially organized for the purpose; it is large enough to provide income not only for its own internal needs but also to allow a considerable proportion (on the average about three-fourths) for appropriations to external activities. The external purposes to which it may contribute are usually broadly stated, not limited to any one institution, allowing the board a wide range of discretion. Such responsibilities ordinarily require the service of an expert, full-time staff.

The success of many of the early American foundations, the breadth of their fields, the significance of their accomplishments, their freedom from the restraints and fixed obligations of narrow institutionalism, have led to the establishment of a large number of new foundations, many not so well equipped in wisdom, experience, and resources to achieve comparable results. The popularity and prestige of the name "foundation" has led to its adoption by many institutions which have few or none of the characteristics of a true foundation, often no principal fund or any fund whatever. The attractiveness of tax exemption in recent years has been a considerable factor in the creation of a host of family foundations and trusts "known only to God and the Internal Revenue Department." The Internal Revenue Department has estimated there are more than ten thousand of these. The situation with respect to intelligent administration is confusing.

To gain some understanding of the situation and to develop some order, various efforts have

been made on a national scale to secure information from organizations which claim to be foundations and to publish lists of those which seem to have the necessary qualifications, with some description of their activities. This new edition of *American Foundations and Their Fields* is the most recent of a series of volumes started by the Twentieth Century Fund in 1928 and continued by Raymond Rich Associates since 1939. The fifth volume, which was published in 1942, listed 314 foundations. The present volume was due for publication in 1945, but the war and then the untimely death of the editor, who had undertaken the publication of a far larger list of foundations, with more complete information than ever before, delayed its appearance. New editors were eventually enlisted to take over the huge task of analyzing the material which had been assembled and of preparing it for publication.

The result is a large, interesting, and significant body of information which will be useful to any student of the subject or to any person concerned with financing of social or educational activities.

The new volume lists 899 foundations. The names to be included in any such listing depend upon the definition of standards and qualifications to be required as a basis for admission. However, from the standpoint of careful analysis and consistent adherence to standards the present volume is disappointing. The editors have adopted the definition above quoted (it was from Harrison and Andrews of the Russell Sage Foundation) or the similar definition which had been adopted in their own earlier publication, but they failed to follow it. The list is filled up with names of many agencies which certainly do not belong there.

The large list, for convenience of description, is broken down into five groups. Group I includes 244 foundations which make grants to other institutions. Isn't that the characteristic function of any true foundation—at least of the modern American type? But the list includes many which are not making grants; others which have no principal funds of their own but

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are making grants from contributions which they raise currently and distribute after the manner of community chests; others are too small to be significant.

Group II includes names and some description of 57 community trusts. A dozen of these may be considered full-time going concerns with principal funds of \$2,000,000 or more. Only five have more than \$5,000,000. The significance of these trusts is that they are open-end trusts to which new principal gifts are being added, their funds are adaptable to changing needs, and they offer a harbor for many of the local funds and "foundations" which have been created independently but which cannot continue for long to operate on that basis without great confusion and loss.

Group III is a list with descriptions of foundations granting fellowships and awards. These "Funds," as they might more properly be called, make awards to individuals rather than grants to institutions. The principal funds are typically much smaller than in the case of the true foundations, and year-round operation is not necessary. The list, which is excellent, naming 130 funds might be much larger.

Group IV is a list of "operating foundations." With a few exceptions all these appear to be exclusively *operating institutions*, with or without endowment, under the necessity of raising money each year for their own current needs.

Group V is a long list of foundations, funds, trusts, and institutions "releasing little or no information." Here is a serious problem. How long will the public continue to tolerate these highly secretive, tax-exempt organizations which render no obvious service and no reports. Their free use of good names is a reproach and a threat to legitimate and useful organizations. Earnest efforts must be made to clarify this field, and this Volume VI, produced under such difficulties, is a substantial contribution to that end.

Perhaps the task would be easier in the future if it were done under the auspices of with the assistance of an advisory committee representing the legitimate foundations. Perhaps it would be to the interests of such foundations to help also to pay the cost of preparation and, if necessary, of publication.

FRANK D. LOOMIS

*Chicago Community Trust*

*Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work: Seventy-fifth Anniversary Meeting, Atlantic City, N. J., 1948.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1949. Pp. x+498. \$5.00.

The 1948 *Proceedings* of the National Conference of Social Work are of more than usual interest. This meeting marked the seventy-fifth anniversary of the founding of what has become a great annual forum for the discussion of social welfare problems; and it was held in connection with the Fourth International Conference of Social Work, the first to be held in the United States. Although the published papers as in previous years represent only something over one-third of those presented at the week-long Conference, they include contributions of speakers from Canada, Belgium, India, and England, as well as from many parts of the United States.

Two special features of the *Proceedings* deserve mention. One is the publication of the tributes to the late secretary of the Conference, who was also the secretary-general of the International Conference, Howard R. Knight. Along with the three statements presented at the memorial service for Mr. Knight is printed the beautiful tribute written by the Conference President, Leonard W. Mayo, at the time of Mr. Knight's sudden death in October, 1947. These are a fitting memorial to the man who had worked with enthusiasm for so long to realize the conjunction of the National and International Conference meetings in 1948. Also as a matter of permanent record is included the picture of the past presidents of the Conference from 1874 to the present.

Possibly because of the scope of the Conference program, the papers selected by the Editorial Committee for publication seem to be more than usually heterogeneous. Besides half a dozen papers on "International Welfare" and almost an equal number on "Social and Economic Issues," the remaining forty-one papers cover such subjects as government and social work, social action, health, youth, the layman in social work, the aged, child welfare, delinquency, and social work methodology as represented by social case work, social group work, community organization, administration, and education for social work. Many of the papers present trends in thinking and in program developments that are not elsewhere so readily available. Of special value for reference purposes are the papers on international welfare given by men and women who spoke from firsthand knowledge of conditions and developments in other countries and

of the activities of various international organizations. Among the most interesting of these are the papers of Dr. René Sand, the beloved president of the International Conference of Social Work who spoke on "Meeting Postwar Needs in Western Europe," and of Dr. Jagadisan Mohandas Kumarappa, who discussed "Social Problems of India." Among the technical papers on case-work concepts and services as related to adults and children are several of higher than average quality.

In his presidential address on "Basic Issues in Social Work," Mr. Mayo reviewed the major emphases of Conference programs in the past and pointed out that "our major concerns have apparently progressed in a fairly orderly fashion over the years, from mere identification of social ills to basic causes and solutions thereof; from an analysis of behavior to some understanding of it; from techniques as such to method as related to our philosophy; from an emphasis on agencies and auspices to concern for more adequate coverage and a higher quality of service; from interest in movements to the building of services and programs; from concern for the individual as a more or less isolated being to the dynamics of group and community life and to society as a whole." He urged that in the future we should discriminate between "the basic and that which is merely important." To that end he proposed these criteria: "Are the matters that motivate and concern us most related clearly and primarily to the philosophy of social work and to its purposes and obligations, or to method, structure, organization, and professional security? Do the things that concern us the most relate directly to the problems that profoundly affect society in this hour, or are we largely concerned with matters of lesser import?" He then outlined several basic issues of the day, two of which he discussed at some length; viz., the problem of interpretation "in simple words for the public, our major purposes and philosophy" and the development of social work "as an inclusive profession with full appreciation of our expanding responsibilities and obligations both at home and abroad."

This seventy-fifth volume of the Conference *Proceedings* will be added as another link in the long chain of development of public concern with social welfare problems and with social work as a professional service.

ARLIEN JOHNSON

University of Southern California  
Los Angeles

*Planning the Modern City.* By HAROLD MAC-LEAN LEWIS. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Vol. I, pp. xi+284; Vol. II, pp. xi+224. \$6.00 each.

One of the pioneer volumes on city planning—*The Planning of the Modern City*—was written by the late Nelson P. Lewis and published in 1916. When that book was revised in 1922, the author was assisted by his son, Harold MacLean Lewis. Both father and son were civil engineers. Now the son has inherited the mantle of his father and has produced this impressive two-volume work, which is both a revision and an enlargement of the earlier publication. The author states that the opinions of his father "have been retained and nothing has been added that would conflict with these."

Nevertheless the book includes a great deal of new material. Take, for example, the problem of parking. In 1916 this bogey of urban life was scarcely recognized. Today it is a major problem and, in this new book, receives extensive consideration.

The author evidently expects these volumes to be used as textbooks in schools of planning. Each chapter is followed by questions against which students may test their mastery of the preceding subject matter. Bibliographical suggestions likewise accompany each chapter. Both volumes are profusely illustrated. The text is abundantly documented by statistical tables, digests of statutes and ordinances, and quotations from recognized experts.

Volume I discusses the kinds of basic data required for effective city planning, the master plan for communications, and the pattern for land use. Volume II includes sections on neighborhood and community planning, housing, the redevelopment of blighted areas, airport and parking facilities, and legal, economic, and administrative problems involved in city planning.

This final section on legal, economic, and administrative problems is especially provocative. It is clear that the author favors legal provision for "excess condemnation." Under such a policy a local authority would acquire more land than it actually needed for a contemplated development. The extra land would be sold later at the higher prices resulting from the adjacent new improvement, and the local authority would thus recapture a considerable portion of its capital investment. Although this policy has long been in effect in European cities, deep-seated American attitudes toward the right to speculate in land would make its adoption in

this country many more years. The tax on the adjacent land would be increased. The record of argument captured upon the taxation of land as every practitioner is doubtful to be found of taxpayer questions since, in 1949, the redevelopment. Many characteristics of argument point out avoid the an urgent rated a

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this country very difficult. Yet it is clear that many municipal improvements paid for by all the taxpayers puts money into the pockets of the adjacent property owners through the increased value conferred upon their holdings by the reconstruction of the neighborhood. The argument that this unearned increment is recaptured through the higher valuations placed upon the properties for purposes of ad valorem taxation is true only to a very limited degree, as everyone familiar with current assessment practices knows. Whether "excess condemnation" is the answer in this country, time will doubtless tell, but certainly some means should be found to prevent the enrichment of one set of taxpayers at the expense of another set. This question should receive serious study now, since, under the terms of the Housing Act of 1949, extensive undertakings in neighborhood redevelopment seem likely to ensue.

Many other controversial problems of this character enliven both volumes. In each instance the author sets forth the facts and the arguments clearly and objectively. His own point of view is liberal, though he is careful to avoid the role of propagandist. His book meets an urgent current need and deserves to be rated as a major contribution.

WAYNE McMILLEN

University of Chicago

*Studies in Social Psychology in World War II.*

Prepared and edited under the auspices of a Special Committee of the SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL. Vol. I, *The American Soldier: Adjustment during Army Life*. By SAMUEL A. STOUFFER, EDWARD A. SUCHMAN, LELAND C. DE VINNEY, SHIRLEY A. STAR, and ROBINS M. WILLIAMS, JR. Vol. II, *The American Soldier: Combat and Its Aftermath*. By SAMUEL A. STOUFFER, ARTHUR A. LUMSDAINE, ROBINS M. WILLIAMS, JR., M. BREWSTER SMITH, IRVING L. JANIS, SHIRLEY A. STAR, and LEONARD S. COTTRELL, JR. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1949. Vols. I-II, pp. xii+599; 675. Each \$7.50. Vols. I and II together \$13.50.

These two books are the first two of a four-volume series being prepared and edited under the auspices of a Special Committee of the Social Science Research Council. The research work which they represent is probably the largest and one of the more significant social science research efforts ever undertaken. It is

the organized product of the four-year wartime activity of the Research Branch, Information and Education Division of the United States Army. The objective of the United States Army in undertaking this project was to make effective use of some of the newest investigation methods developed by the social sciences prior to the war for accurately determining soldier attitudes and thus to enable the Army to base major administrative decisions and policies affecting its vast organization of manpower on scientific evidence of existing attitudes.

The Research Branch was officially established in October, 1941, after having been blocked for some time by a War Department directive which stated that "anonymous opinion, good or bad, is destructive in its effect on a military organization . . ." and that "polls" would therefore not be permitted. The first significant Research Branch survey was made the day after Pearl Harbor in December, 1941; and between that day and the end of the war over two hundred different questionnaires, many containing over a hundred separate items, were given to more than a half-million soldiers in all the theaters of war, selected by carefully planned and tested sampling methods. The Research Branch gradually came to be directed and manned by a skilled organization of officer and enlisted military personnel and civilian technicians, many of whom had already established eminent reputations. Within a year a branch organization was conducting studies in the European Theater of Operations, and by late 1943 research teams had been established in all the theaters of war, so that cross-section studies of the entire army organization in all parts of the world would be tested for attitudes of local or world-wide importance.

Some of the studies that the Research Branch was called upon to make—which were, perhaps, of a less significant type than some others—were, for example, a study of the factors that led men in the South Pacific to avoid the use of atabrine, which of two kinds of huts men preferred in Alaska, and what radio programs men preferred or what they most liked to read in *Yank* magazine. Of more significance were studies which led directly to the establishment of the point system for demobilization, the system President Roosevelt justified in advance as a demobilization determined in terms of what the soldiers themselves wanted. Also significant were studies estimating the number of men who would want to go on to college and the general cost of the proposed G.I. Bill.

After the war the data gathered by the Research Branch, described as unparalleled in the whole period of work in sociology and social psychology, were released by the Army to a special civilian committee of the Social Science Research Council. Supported by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation the findings of this gigantic project have been put together for publication.

Volume I is essentially a descriptive study of soldiers' activities pertaining to personal adjustment to the institutionalized life of the Army. After a chapter introducing the study, its methodology, etc., a case study is presented of one infantry division and the attitude of the men in adapting traditional practices to the needs of modern warfare. Some very interesting problems of personal adjustment are located and considered in detail. This is followed by the presentation of an extensive amount of statistical data and interpretative discussion of variations in background and type of army experience and their relationship to personal adjustment in the Army. The remainder of the book is given over to selected problems. In the chapter on "Social Mobility in the Army" the effect of the caste-like gulf between officers and enlisted men is nicely brought out, and it no doubt played a part in bringing about the appointment of the Doolittle Committee by the Secretary of War in 1946 and its subsequent recommendations for a complete review of the system of promotion in the Army. The chapters on "Job Assignment and Job Satisfaction," "Attitudes toward Leadership and Social Control," and "The Orientation of Soldiers toward the War" shed interesting light on man's human needs particularly in his adjustment to participation in a huge military organization's war effort. The final chapter on "Negro Soldiers" is a particularly enlightening one in that it presents in detail a wide variety of attitudes held by white enlisted men and officers and by the Negro soldiers themselves according to individual and group backgrounds as well as situational circumstances in the Army. Some of the stereotyped opinions about Negroes and their treatment are very effectively discredited at the same time some of the realistic problems in improving race relations are pictured.

Volume II is also a descriptive study of soldiers' attitudes treating the motivations and attitudes of combat troops in Ground and Air Forces, also dealing with the aftermath of combat. The initial chapter on "Attitudes before

Combat and Behavior in Combat" showed the importance of attitudes to combat success in that those with the least satisfactory attitude toward combat tended to have the least satisfactory performance record in combat. "General Characteristics of Ground Combat" is next described largely as background for chapters iii and iv, which treat "Combat Motivations Among Ground Troops" and "Problems Related to the Control of Fear in Combat," respectively. Some of the fundamental factors that seem to make it possible for men to hold out long and to fight well enough to keep effective armies going are developed here. The next chapter, "The Combat Replacement," develops the conclusion "that combat efficiency appears to reach a peak after prolonged combat experience." The chapter on "Attitudes of Ground Combat Troops toward Rear Echelons and the Home Front" develops some interesting conclusions on problems that baffled a lot of people during the war. "Morale Attitudes of Combat Flying Personnel in the Air Corps" and "Objective Factors Related to Morale Attitudes in the Aerial Combat Situation" are taken up in the next two chapters, and the reader is helped to understand why the morale in the Air Corps was so much higher than in other branches of Army service. In the final five chapters the following topics are developed: "Psychoneurotic Symptoms in the Army," "Problems of Rotation and Reconversion," "The Point System for Redeployment and Discharge," "The Aftermath of Hostilities," and "The Soldier Becomes a Veteran." The first three are the most interesting, particularly because of the way in which the work of the Research Branch was effectively used in working out the knotty problem of redeployment and discharge priority as the war ended. The point system was probably the most successful direct use that the Army made of the entire four-year attitude study effort.

It is impossible to suggest the amount of significant data collected and breadth of coverage contained within the covers of these two volumes other than to say that undoubtedly it exceeds anything ever done before in research in social psychology and sociology. The studies were developed and completed to provide a base of factual knowledge for administrative and policy decisions in the total Army operation. In acknowledging the use of such a research tool Major General Osborn under whose administrative authority the work was done stated that not only had the purpose been

"abundant discovery of weighty opinions of the Army implicit in the and even welfare of attitudes of researchers in the gained developments leading to a scale of to direct social developments important to allistics social

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"abundantly fulfilled" but also a remarkable discovery was made. "The Army gave little weight to personal opinions; but when these opinions were supported by factual studies, the Army took them seriously." In thinking of the implications of this statement one wonders why in the face of uncertainty, misunderstanding, and even malignment of some of the many public welfare programs in our country similar kinds of attitude studies could not be applied by the research facilities of public welfare administrators in order that better understanding be gained of where and why nonacceptance develops. The Army is to be commended for releasing without restriction the data it so effectively gathered. For the first time on any large scale some partial attempts at least were made to direct human behavior on the basis of evidence gathered by scientific methods applied to social and human problems. The processes developed and the conclusions projected are of importance not only to all social scientists but to all interested in learning processes, characteristics and functions of social institutions, and social adjustment problems in general.

RICHARD G. GUILFORD

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University of Minnesota*

*The Embers Still Burn.* By IRA A. HIRSCHMANN.  
New York: Simon & Schuster, 1949. Pp.  
xiii+272. \$3.00.

To anyone interested in problems of European relief and recovery following the great devastations of World War II, *The Embers Still Burn* will prove to be an interesting and informative book. The author, Mr. Hirschmann, was privileged to observe at firsthand the problems arising out of the great holocaust. As the personal representative of Fiorello LaGuardia, then head of UNRRA, Hirschmann ranged the length and breadth of Europe and the Near East in his personal search for the truth concerning the success or failure of UNRRA.

Mr. Hirschmann, like many another sensitive observer, did not like some of what he saw of our program for displaced persons and relief, and he has boldly and bluntly outlined what he considered to be some of the stupidities of our occupying leaders and their allies. The treatment of some of the worst victims of fascism and nazism was enough, certainly, to arouse the wrath of any conscientious person. And the pathos of the lost children and the heartbreak-

ing search to track them down adds to the sensitive touch of the book.

However, when Mr. Hirschmann the businessman and government official turns editor, his analyses fall down. His anger, rightful in many instances, carries away his powers fully to examine and weigh the effects of the various programs for European assistance, and in a slam-bang last chapter he denounces everything from the Marshall Plan, through our Palestine policy, to Taft-Hartley, and failure to enact the federal aid to education bill. "We have turned away from the path of peace," Hirschmann says, "from Big Three Unity; we have spurned collective security; we have determined on unilateral action and have by-passed the United Nations. We have been courting every reactionary and Fascist element either in or out of government in Argentina and other South American countries, in Spain, Iran, Turkey, Greece, and China, to mention a few. We are supporting civil wars throughout the world" (p. 265).

Unfortunately, the foregoing can only be the words of an incomplete observer, carried away in the anger of agreed wrongs or short-comings, who has decided that these ills must mean we are going down the path to ruin. Mr. Hirschmann seems to believe that, had Roosevelt lived, these things would not have happened; he demands that we return to the agreements of Potsdam (but will the Russians let us do that?); and he insists that we make an agreement with Stalin (but on what basis?).

*The Embers Still Burn* is a thought-provoking book from which the careful reader may learn much. Certainly the details about some of the D.P. camps, the formulation of policy, and his sometimes futile attempts to secure more human treatment of the homeless of the last war, are important and should be known by the American public. The torpedoing of UNRRA comes in for much discussion, and was to be regretted. But it is too bad that Mr. Hirschmann's rightful anger at some of these policies has been translated into a fear that a huge State Department, British Empire, Army, Wall Street plot was behind the blunders that we have made.

ROBERT E. MERRIAM

*Chicago City Council*

*Rural Welfare Services.* By BENSON Y. LANDIS.  
New York: Columbia University Press, 1949.  
Pp. vi+201. \$3.00.

This book is written by a well-known rural sociologist, who is the secretary of the Washington office of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. It is intended to be useful to the agricultural extension worker, the educator, the clergyman, and officers of farm organizations among others, since Mr. Landis believes that such persons will determine to a large degree what is done about rural welfare.

The text of the book consists almost entirely of a well-documented condensation of published material concerning various aspects of rural welfare. Quotations and summaries from other authors are used freely. Occasionally a given subject suffers because of the extreme brevity of treatment or because a quotation is used out of context. However, the author has performed a real service in drawing together data from a wide variety of scattered sources. His well-organized bibliography is comprised largely of public documents, articles from social work periodicals, proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, books and pamphlets on rural social welfare, and the reports of various public and voluntary agencies. A directory of United States governmental agencies and of national voluntary agencies supplements the text.

In preparing such a volume any author would be faced with exceedingly difficult choices in deciding what to include. Mr. Landis chose to focus on the provisions for "aid to persons in need, for prevention of unwholesome conditions, and for promotion of social security, health and stability in rural areas." There are sixteen brief chapters, some consisting of but a few pages. The first two deal with "Rural Trends and Needs" and the "Evaluation of Rural Welfare Services," while the two final chapters are called "State Organization" and "Planning to Meet Future Needs." Nine chapters describe the extent and nature of public assistance, old age and survivors insurance, child health and welfare services, recreation, youth programs, church social work, probation services, health and medical facilities, and services available to veterans. The other three are devoted to the American Red Cross, the Farmer's Home Administration, and the problem of rural child labor. Although there are inevitably some gaps in the material, most of the major services are at least mentioned.

This compendium of general information should be particularly useful to the untrained rural social worker and to workers in related fields. It is in no sense a handbook on method

or on local resources. It brings out major rural needs and expresses a point of view that is sympathetic toward further development of adequate services for rural people.

GRACE BROWNING

Indiana University

*School and Community Programs.* By EDWARD G. OLSEN (ed.). New York: Prentice-Hall, 1949. Pp. xiv + 510. \$4.25.

"Have you a compass?" the teacher asked the clerk in the variety store. "Well," answered the clerk, "we have compasses for drawing circles, but none for going places."

Edward G. Olsen takes the view that schools are not for the purpose of drawing neat little circles—that they exist in order to point the way toward a better group and individual living. A recent comment from *School and Society* repeats his thesis that schools have a dynamic community function. "It is now generally agreed that the school's basic function is to improve the quality of human living, and that such improvement requires a far closer co-operation between school and community than has been typical in the immediate past."

Neither is the author unique in this community-minded attitude. Francis J. Brown's *Educational Sociology* (Prentice-Hall, 1947) maintains that the modern school will fail if it does not build into its youth a deep appreciation of the rich heritage of the past and at the same time develop also the ability to adjust to new social patterns. It must, says Dr. Brown, be able "to create the patterns in which the ideals and aspirations of mankind may become a living reality." Thus Brown covers the entire range of educative agencies—the family, the school, films, the press, radio, and the formal and informal groups to which potential citizens belong. His self-appointed task is that of breaking down the still widespread assumption that the activities referred to by the term "education" are limited in nature and effect and constitute largely, if not solely, the activity of the formal school.

Olsen (director of School and Community Relations, Washington State Department of Public Instruction) in the present volume subtitled "A Casebook of Successful Practice from Kindergarten Through College and Adult Education," a companion volume to his *School and Community*, cuts the cake the other way. He

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deals with the interrelationship of the community and the school on a pragmatic basis.

Where Brown dealt with a program of community interaction and education under the rubrics "Individual and Community Health," "Vocational Proficiency," "Purposeful Living," "Social Attitudes," and "Social Planning and Social Control," Olsen goes directly to the materials of "bridges," as he calls them, of school and community symbiosis. Thus, to remove the school from its "island" fastness, he recommends the utilization of ten or more devices or techniques, including documentary sources, audio-visual materials, resource visitors, interviews, field trips, surveys, extended field studies, school camping, service projects, and work experiences.

Since *School and Community Problems* actually is a casebook, one expects and finds the incidents which document the "bridge" thesis of school and community relationships. It is evident that the "cases" have been selected with care and edited with skill in order to render their import of the greatest value to the reader in school and community liaison. It was necessary also to preserve the wording and spirit of the original articles. The publisher reports that Olsen spent six years of research in order to select the proper illustrations for the community bridge program at work. "Each article is the report of an educator who actually saw his particular program planned and carried through." Thus, the entire book is one of realistic first-hand observation.

The flavor of the primary source is still so strong that it is an easy assumption that the reader, either layman or student, will thrill to Ellerbee's "Learning by Doing" and the trail-blazing of Holtville, Alabama, as well as mark with admiration Hamtramck's "Civic Pride Council" and Rankin, North Carolina's "Community Service Center." A hundred similar accounts are included, and it seems to this writer that the presentation of these achievements in tying school and community together is marred only by the failure to provide an index or table of contents for ready reference to each selected account.

Moreover, Olsen's technique may provide positive values in other directions than those indicated by his ten bridges. Torsten Lund, in *The School Centered Community*, a recent Freedom Pamphlet, holds that "The School should engage in the full life of the community. Its problems should be integral with those of people of

all classes, ages, races, religions." Thus, the school and community approach should also provide a means of bridging the gap between American protestations of equality and the actual practice of discrimination against minority groups and ideological dissenters.

Indeed, this writer does not hesitate to recommend college courses in "the Improvement of School and Community Relationships." He has a feeling, based upon questionnaire experience with teachers and their assumption of civic duty, that every teacher who graduated longer than ten years ago and each prospective teacher of this year's vintage should participate in such a course. Moreover, if the accent on this interrelationship is deemed good for teachers, how much more of value will it be for pupils, who will have a longer life to lead than most of their instructors. Most certainly Olsen is correct in requiring a compass with which to go places rather than one which has value only for drawing neat, precise, little circles.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

*Willamette University*  
Salem, Oregon

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*Training in Community Relations.* By RONALD LIPPITT. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. xiv+286. \$3.50.

This book is a detailed account of an experiment conducted in Connecticut in an effort to develop new skills in the area of group activity. The leadership in this undertaking was provided by the so-called "state team" and the social scientist team. The former consisted of staff members of two public agencies—the State Interracial Commission and the State Department of Education's Citizenship Consultant Service—and one private organization—the Connecticut staff of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Members of the social scientist team were drawn from the Research Center for Group Dynamics of the University of Michigan and from the Commission on Community Interrelations of the American Jewish Congress.

The heart of the experiment was a two-week workshop. The participants were workers from Connecticut communities, each of whom had a strategic relationship to some particular type of intergroup conflict. A persistent effort was made to evoke participation of the workshop



members in all stages of the experiment—curriculum-building, methodology, and evaluation. Considerable use was made of the "sociodrama" in which members of the workshop assumed roles in a defined situation (such as presentation of discriminatory episodes by a clergyman to a Mayor's Interracial Committee) in order that their fellow-students might observe, evaluate, and criticize the methods used.

A fourth element in the experiment was the community observers. These were individuals who were in a position to evaluate the members of the workshop (with the advance knowledge and consent of the members). The observers were interviewed prior to the workshop to obtain their views as to the training needs of particular workshop members; and, if possible, they were reinterviewed six months after the workshop to ascertain whether, in their judgment, definite changes had occurred in the skills of the workshop participant.

As a rule reports on experiments of this type are very tedious. This book is an exception. It sustains the interest of the reader throughout. Partly this is because it is well organized and well written. But chiefly it is due to the very aggressive efforts made to think through all aspects of the problem and to report candidly what could and could not be accomplished.

Actually most of the findings are at best tentative, and many rest upon a tenuous base of evidence. Nevertheless in a country such as ours that is devoted to the short course, the institute, the conference, the panel, the workshop, and every other known medium of adult education, this experiment must be regarded as a useful contribution. It is doubtful whether a more determined effort has ever before been made to get some real understanding of what these gatherings can accomplish.

WAYNE McMILLEN

University of Chicago

*Marriage.* By ROBERT A. HARPER. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1949. Pp. ix+308. \$2.75.

*Courtship and Marriage.* By FRANCIS E. MERRILL. New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1949. Pp. ix+355. \$2.85 text ed.

The first of these books is designed as a text for college courses in marriage and as a guide to marriage counselors. The author tells us that his first goal is to present the major facts and ideas

about marriage which shall be suitable to the needs and backgrounds of students. His emphasis is on the "reader's personal needs and interests in marriage and family living instead of sociological and psychological theories and historical perspective," and he is convinced that only by a realistic preparation for the difficulties of marriage can young people achieve its satisfactions. The organization of the book is sound enough. The concept of romantic love and its relationship to American marriage is discussed, and there is a rather superficial listing of the reasons why some people marry and others do not. A chapter on mate selection reveals that even in our society the individual man or woman does not have free choice.

In the section on premarital adjustment some of the obvious psychological, physiological, and social differences between men and women are discussed in a simplified style more suitable for high school than college students. Certain generalizations are made as to the changing role of women in the modern world and the changing functions of the family.

Any social worker would quarrel, however, with the author's statement that: "The modern family has only a few major functions *not adequately provided by other institutions*: namely, (1) love comradeship between husband and wife; (2) reproduction and (3) protective and affectional services for pre-school children." The suggestion, that after the age of six, children could secure "protective and affectional services" from other social institutions is a chilling one, and it should be added that at no point in this book are the procreation, nurture, and education of children seen as the major functions of marriage.

The section on "Dating and Courtship" is a mixture of highly simplified sex information and a great many generalizations on current adolescent social behavior, which will make the book out of date in a few years. Written for students in the coeducational colleges, this section of the book is studded with clichés of its readers. Such phrases as "going steady," "playing the field," "heavy petting," "popping the vital question of marriage," "whispering sweet nothings" cheapen the content as does the author's assumption that the ephemeral fashions of the college campus are of general significance.

The remainder of the book is a restatement of material that may be found in almost any women's magazine. The discussion of general sources of marital conflict has an almost comic-

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strip quality, yet the author attempts to give concrete advice which will assist young people in solving marital problems. There are chapters on sexual adjustment, economic adjustment, health and hygiene, which contain nothing which is unsound and nothing which has not been said many times before. Marriage laws and statistics on divorce are outlined. The closing chapters of the book are devoted to family relationships and the adjustments required when married couples become parents. In the last chapter on family unity, various formulas for increased participation in family life are discussed.

This is a generally unsatisfying book. It gives facts about courtship, marriage, parenthood, and family life, and recognition is given to the emotional needs of the individual. The author is somewhat fearful of psychoanalytic theories of development and writes of marriage as it exists in the urban, middle-class setting. A visitor from another planet where marriage had never existed might read it carefully without receiving much understanding of the psychological, biological, social, or economic purposes of marriage. Nor would he derive from it any sense that marriage has within it elements of beauty, drama, tragedy—or even importance.

Merrill's *Courtship and Marriage* is a far more serious presentation. Written by a sociologist, it emphasizes two premises: that courtship in America is influenced to a unique degree by romantic love and that marriage is broadly determined by the socially established roles which husband and wife play.

Considerable attention is devoted to the concept of romantic love and its influence on our thinking about marriage, with recognition that it cannot be a sound basis for an enduring relationship. The three-way conflict between the imposed concept of romantic love, the biological strivings of the individual, and the demands of society is well developed. There is a fairly full discussion of the social activities undertaken by young girls and boys which the author, for lack of a better word, calls "dating" and which he considers as a specifically American social custom, a preparation for courtship which provides the individual with an opportunity for experimentation and choice without in any sense committing him to a permanent relationship. Here, as in Harper's *Marriage*, a disproportionate emphasis is given to the world of the college campus and the author's state-

ment that "fraternities, sororities, athletic success, good looks, clothes, popular personalities, sexual attractiveness, money, automobiles, and wit are among the elements involved in the sexual struggle" tells us little about those American young people who do not go to college. There are however, some contrasts made between the social customs of college students and those of young people in high school. The function of courtship as preparation for marriage is discussed, and there is some analysis of the determinants of marital choice. The author makes broad use of Alfred Kinsey's *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male* to support his statements as to the range of sexual experience in the adolescent male.

Marriage is then discussed as a series of roles played by husband and wife. The role is defined as "a general term for describing certain duties, prerogatives and attitudes which persons having a like function in any given group tend to have in common." The author discusses at some length the varying social and economic roles of husband and wife before and after parenthood, their biological roles, their roles during the period of the wife's pregnancy and their roles as parents. There is discussion of what the author calls "broken rules" in which effects of divorce, desertion, and death are discussed, with some consideration of the causes of divorce and maladjustment. The last chapter of the book is a discussion of the ways in which marriage may be strengthened through education and college students may be prepared for marriage. The training of marriage counselors is discussed, with the implication that marriage counseling may be an emerging profession.

Although the author says that the marriage counselor should have training in social work, as well as in eight other specified fields of which psychiatry is one, there is no indication that he sees the professionally trained social case worker as a person particularly equipped to offer help in situations of marital discord or counsel to those preparing for marriage, or questions the advisability of training persons in the narrow specialty of marital counseling.

It is this narrowness which, to a social worker, detracts from both these books. Surely marriage, as a social institution, cannot be effectively studied unless its major function—the bringing up of children—is recognized.

*Courtship and Marriage* is a more serious book than *Marriage*. Both suffer, however, from the relatively slight emphasis given to parent-

child relationships and from the lack of recognition of the deeper emotional factors which contribute to marital maladjustment; and the reader is left with the feeling that the authors have somehow failed to give sufficient weight either to the values of marriage or to the deep psychological, sociological, and economic forces which threaten it.

BARBARA BRANDON

*University of Chicago*

*Women in Marital Conflict: A Casework Study.*

By FLORENCE HOLLIS. New York: Family Service Association of America, 1949. Pp. 236. \$3.50.

In this volume Miss Hollis has made a two-fold contribution; she has produced a helpful consolidation of some of our knowledge of social case work with women in marital conflict and an important and stimulating evaluation of case-work treatment and "results." In addition, the book itself is a provocative experiment with research method in social case work.

The book is based on the findings of a doctoral dissertation which studied a hundred case records written by twenty-two case workers and made available by eleven family service agencies. The cases were chosen "according to a random pattern." Pertinent material was selected from the original study to illustrate some of the principal findings, theoretical material was added, appropriate revisions in content were made, and the resulting volume is a usable and valuable volume for any discipline concerned with marriage counseling and particularly for social case work.

The book is divided into two parts. The first ten chapters deal primarily with a consideration of internal and external factors associated with marital disharmony or contributing to it. Some of the patterns of personality found in the women studied are identified and examined in relation to how they effected the marriage and what could be done about them. The "internal factors" are illustrated and discussed in chapters entitled "Excessive Dependence," "Parental Ties," "The Need to Suffer," and "Rejection of Femininity." External factors that may effect marriage adjustment and their implications for treatment are discussed in chapters on "Interfering Relatives," "Differences in Cultural Backgrounds," and "Economic Factors." Miss Hollis, at the outset, clarifies her theo-

retical frame of reference. She sees the individual in relation to the social and psychological aspects of his environment and his personality and she stresses the psychosocial character of case-work treatment, which is clearly differentiated from psychoanalytic treatment. The discussion of Freudian theory of personality development and the concept of the mature personality and its deviations, with emphasis on the development, tasks, and defenses of the ego is clearly stated and applied to the case material. For example, in the chapter on "Parental Ties," Miss Hollis reviews psychoanalytic theory with regard to the girl child's feelings about father and mother from infancy to maturity. This body of knowledge is related to the case material to understand personalities of the women and their adjustment in marriage. Implicit and explicit is the principle that case-work treatment must be diagnostically determined, and an important and well-documented finding is that malfunctioning in marriage (as any other symptom) must be understood and treated in the context of the individual's psychosocial development.

The first ten chapters of the book suffer from the method of selection of the original data, since the case records were chosen according to a random pattern and many of them did not include appropriate material for identification and study of causative factors and their significance in treatment of marital conflict. The material is helpful nonetheless and meets the author's purpose "to throw light on the dynamics of marital disharmony," and, in addition, one may gather from it suggestions for further study. In fact, Miss Hollis suggests that future studies "might well be based on records written specifically" for that purpose.

The second part of the book, which concerns itself with case-work methods in marital conflict, represents an important contribution to the case-work field in general—not alone to case work in marital problems. The method of selection of the one hundred case records is well suited to the development of chapters such as "The Range of Casework Treatment." Casework treatment is classified according to "the means by which change was brought about—the various processes and combinations of techniques used." The flexibility implicit in this method of classification serves to implement the principle of diagnostically oriented treatment. The four classifications of treatment are: environmental modification, clarification, psychological support, and insight development.

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Each classification is described and developed in relation to the diagnostic indications for its use. Differential application is based on the client's needs and accessibility to case-work help, seen against the backdrop of her personality and her current reality. The approach is genetic and dynamic.

The method of evaluating the degree of improvement in the cases and the findings are significant. The method used by Miss Hollis, although less precise than others that have been suggested, lends itself to experimentation by many agencies which at present do not have the resources necessary for more elaborate methods. Apparent association between improvement and skilful case work was found. The finding that most of the failures were in short-contact cases (three or fewer interviews) is of special interest to family service agencies, since their proportion of short-contact case is characteristically high. An excellent bibliography is included.

Miss Hollis' plea for better marriage counseling is really a plea for better social case work and is accompanied by specific and thought-provoking suggestions for schools of social work, agencies, and practitioners. In this book Miss Hollis makes a contribution toward the goal of better social case work.

NORMA D. LEVINE

*Jewish Family and Community Service*  
Chicago

*Social Medicine: Its Derivations and Objectives.*

INSTITUTE ON SOCIAL MEDICINE, NEW YORK, 1947. Edited by IAGO GALDSTON, M.D. ("New York Academy of Medicine Committee on Medicine and the Changing Order Studies.") New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1949. Pp. xvi+294. \$2.75.

In line with its characteristically progressive approach to medicine in the changing order, the New York Academy of Medicine sponsored an institute on social medicine in 1947 to which were invited not only physicians but historians, philosophers, and social scientists to contribute their thinking about man in all his varied relationships as these might bear on his health and well-being. The commemoration of the first centennial of the Academy, through the publication of the papers presented in this Institute, constitutes not only an appropriate rounding-

out of its first century of leadership but a most encouraging indication of a vision for the future which may well change the entire character of medical practice. Considerable credit for the uniformly high quality of these papers, as well as for provocative and stimulating differences in the points of view presented, must be given to Dr. Iago Galdston, who edited and arranged them, and to the officers and staff of the Academy for the inspiration which guided the plans for the Institute and the selection of the participants.

Of particular interest is the many-sided approach to a delineation of the concept "social medicine." Consideration is given in one paper, for example, to a wide range of social factors operating to create conditions of "social pathology" inimical to health. Sections on epidemiology in social medicine and on the place of nutrition give further emphasis to the significance of causative factors and to the necessity for the development of scientific controls of environmental hazards on a broad and inclusive scale if disease is to be effectively prevented. The influence of current British thinking is strongly apparent in the emphasis given to the sociological and the public health aspects of such controls, but the influence of modern psychiatry is equally clear. In the papers on "Social Psychiatry and Social Medicine" and on "Social Applications of Psychiatry" cognizance is taken of both individual and group adjustment, largely from the standpoint of the relationship of normal psychological growth to personal and group maturity and responsibility. Although some of the papers in these sections seem to be more concerned with offering information to physicians regarding the bearing of socioeconomic, cultural, and political influences on man and his social adjustment than with the relevance of such information to states of health or disease, the focus of the presentation as a whole is maintained with remarkable clarity. The composite is a many-sided view of man and the social order, in which the possibilities for further study and analysis are either directly related to medical practice and research or are implied. The stimulus of this compilation, therefore, lies in its totality, as much as in any one paper. Whatever one's reaction to a given definition or concept of social medicine, the breadth of view and the depth of penetration are impressive in their potentialities for a dynamic and creative approach to the cure of illness and the prevention of disease.



In view of this broad approach, it is a matter of some surprise to discover that none of the participants in this Institute was a social worker. Although occasional acknowledgment is made of the role of social study in contributing to an understanding of the social components in illness, or of the place of social case work in medical care, it is noteworthy that these leaders in medicine have turned to sociologists, economists, psychiatrists, and psychologists for the hypotheses and the data to support their concepts of social medicine. One cannot escape the troubling thought that the reasons for this may lie within social work itself—in its preoccupation with the case to the exclusion of scientific, analytical studies of the evidence that has been accumulating for years in the case records of social agencies. If social workers find themselves excluded from the serious studies of the social components in illness and in medical care which this Institute foreshadows, it may well be because the sociologists and the psychologists have been readier to apply techniques of study and analysis to social data of the type with which social workers are thoroughly familiar through their day-by-day experience. Regardless of whether one accepts the findings of the social scientists, their willingness to formulate hypotheses and to test them out is in line with the spirit of medical research, and their conclusions are likely to be accepted by physicians as offering a valid base for inferences regarding the bearing of social phenomena on health and disease unless social workers take more initiative in sponsoring and conducting a quality of research which can command the respect of medical science.

DORA GOLDSTINE

University of Chicago

*Handbook on Race Relations in South Africa.*

Edited by ELLEN HELLMANN, assisted by LEAH ABRAHAMS. Published for the South African Institute of Race Relations by Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, Cape Town, London, New York, 1949. Pp. xii + 778. \$12.50.

This monumental volume is, in truth, what its editors claim that it is—an authoritative statement on social, economic, political, and cultural conditions in the Union of South Africa, as well as in South-West Africa and the three high-commission territories. Much has been written on

the states and societies treated in this scholarly work, but these contributions have appeared in official reports, pamphlets, documents, magazine articles, and memoirs—forms generally inaccessible to the intelligent public. One reads with some surprise that now, for the first time, available knowledge has been brought together and that thirty-one South African educators, leaders, and publicists have contributed, not always without hardship or sacrifice, to a formidable co-operative enterprise.

To call the Union of South Africa a multisocial society is to give no more than a hint of the baffling complexity of the problems and conflicts with which South Africa has had to wrestle and with which she is still bravely wrestling. Here we have a substantial and gratifying record of progress—material, social and moral—but there is no spirit of gratulation or complacency in the contributions. So much remains to be accomplished, so much must be done over again because of the uncertainties, setbacks, and anachronisms of partisan and factional politics.

America as a melting pot knows something of the processes of assimilation, integration, and unification. We have had an ideal, a goal, with standards often honored in the breach, to be sure, but never quite lost sight of or seriously challenged. In South Africa there is as yet no such consensus. Not all her statesmen profess liberal principles. Concessions to justice and humanity are precarious. (*The Handbook*, by the way, does not include an analysis of two recent reports on race relations or an interpretation of the unexpected success of the conservative Nationalist party in the last general election—a success which, for the time being, is tantamount to the rejection of the liberal policies of General Jan Smuts and his followers.)

The chapter on population is likely to bewilder an American or European. The Union's population is generally classified under four headings—Natives, Europeans, Asiatics, Colored. The Asiatics are mainly Indians. The Colored element embraces the Cape colored, the Bushman, and the Hottentot, not to mention other persons of mixed race. The Native element, or Bantu, or African, is divided into five major groups.

How are these heterogeneous people governed? What advance, if any, have they made materially and culturally since the Boer War and the formation of the Union? What of the respective birth rates, the cityward drift one hears about, the educational facilities in the

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semiurban and rural districts, the co-operation or nonco-operation of the respective representatives of the several races? What of the social services, the state of the welfare legislation? What of anti-Semitism and antinativism? What are the economic prospects of the Union? Is there a native literature, and, if so, what are its characteristics? What of the other arts and of the crafts and industries?

These and many other questions are well covered in the *Handbook*. The statistical data are not always reliable or up to date. The contributors try earnestly to avoid dogmatism or glossing over regrettable survivals of a past era. The tone is never polemical or provocative. We are given the important facts with as much objectivity as is humanly possible. To know these is to gain some understanding of the present troubles and problems of the South African Union.

VICTOR S. YARROS

La Jolla, California

*Elmtown's Youth*. By A. B. HOLLINGSHEAD.  
New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.  
Pp. xi+480. \$5.00.

The American ideal that all men are created equal cannot be translated into effective action without equality of *opportunity* for all. This study shows that an extra-legal system of social classes, stratifying and limiting lives and opportunity, has profoundly and unfavorably influenced the adjustment of many an adolescent to his community.

The volume presents in detail the procedures, findings, and conclusions of a sociological study to prove the hypothesis that "the social behavior of adolescents is related functionally to the position their families occupy in the social structure of the community." The setting is a Middle Western community of 10,000 persons. The research included 735 boys and girls who were resident during the school year 1941-42 and had finished grade school between 1938 and 1941. Nearly half the group had since dropped out of high school, but all were covered in the study. The community's history, economy, social institutions, and culture were examined and evaluated. Interviews were held with professional persons, businessmen, parents, and representative citizens interested in the project who knew and understood the community.

The 735 adolescents were distributed statistically in accordance with the social classes

found to exist in Elmtown. The groups ranged from Class I, in which "wealth and lineage are combined through the economic, legal, and family systems in such a manner that membership is more or less stabilized from one generation to another," to Class V, lowest in prestige and "looked upon as the scum of the city by the higher classes." Following a discussion of the ambiguous status of adolescents generally—neither children nor adults, but treated under some conditions as one and sometimes as the other—the high school students and the out-of-school adolescents are analyzed. The former are considered in terms of school adjustment, social life (cliques and dates), religious affiliation and participation, employment and job ideas, and recreation. Those who had left school (concentrated almost entirely in classes IV and V) are described with reference to reasons for dropping out, jobs and work adjustment, leisure-time uses, sex interests, and marriage.

Social workers have long recognized the vital influence of family life and interrelationships upon the personality and behavior of children. Hollingshead has established the fact that in a representative community the family environment is limited by a confining prestige structure. The system so restricts economic and educational opportunity and freedom of social choice that the family and its adolescent members must stay within a precise area, shared chiefly with others in the same social class. True enough, parental concern or apathy, the example of associates, and neighborhood traditions bear upon school attendance and motivation, religious interest, the type of job sought, and leisure-time activity. The rigid social structure of the community interferes with the adolescent's freedom of choice in all these areas, however, as it did in shaping the lives of his parents.

Perhaps Elmtown is *not* typical of all medium-sized communities. The prestige structure in smaller villages may be less well defined and more fluid. Certainly that in larger cities would differ in many respects. It might be pointed out also that the youthful Elmtowner has the right to go elsewhere in search of opportunities denied him at home. Undoubtedly some of the older adolescents do. Nevertheless, this research reminds us that the young Alger hero's success story hardly typifies the life-pattern of the average boy or girl born into a family whose social rating in the community is low.

The translation of American ideals into everyday life and social relations throughout the land must, as the author has suggested, be placed higher on the list of our solemn obligations to all youth.

RICHARD EDDY

*Illinois Children's Hospital-School*  
Chicago

*Labor and Management in a Common Enterprise.*

By DOROTHEA DE SCHWEINITZ. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1949. Pp. xiii+186. \$3.00.

In the postwar flood of books on labor relations, a significant development is the series of analyses of *constructive* relationships. The National Planning Association's case studies on *Causes of Industrial Peace* are a notable example. There appears to be also a growing interest in the possibilities of labor-management co-operation in production, as shown in a recent survey by the American Management Association.<sup>1</sup> A valuable addition to this discussion is the study of wartime experience and postwar developments by the former chief of the Committee Standard Branch, War Production Drive Division, of the War Production Board. Miss de Schweinitz was able to use the files of the WPB and also to do extensive field work as a Wertheim Fellow of Harvard University. While believing in the value of joint committees when both employers and unions accept them and try to make them effective, she does not over-emphasize the limited actual accomplishment during the war or since.

Nearly five thousand joint committees were registered with the War Production Drive; and about three thousand, covering five million employees, seem to have been functioning at any one time during the war. But only something more than five hundred are considered to have functioned "effectively," giving attention to production problems in addition to specific wartime matters, such as bond drives, transportation, absenteeism, safety, and the like. At least three hundred of the more effective committees have continued. An "effective" committee is defined as one in which "the employer accepted organized labor as an ally for the solution of plant

problems, labor evinced a participating interest, and both cooperated in sustaining a program for limited periods or throughout the war." Such co-operation develops first as "information sharing"; a second stage is "problem-sharing," where employers recognize that workers can make a contribution in certain areas; and a third is "idea-sharing," where management "is willing to have labor initiate ideas in any kind of production and personnel activities, and labor, with certain safeguards, is willing to contribute thus to the operation of the business." Even in the latter case, of course, the committee is only advisory. Most of the wartime committees did not go beyond the first stage.

The study is concerned primarily with the rather limited number of more effective committees. A detailed analysis of their work during the war gives impressive evidence of the range of problems dealt with by at least a few committees. The analysis of committee procedures will be useful to any companies and unions which undertake to explore the possibilities of such joint attack on problems. The most effective committees were those which included top production management, which organized joint subcommittees on special subjects, and which had the co-operation of top union officers and rank and file. The results, however, are almost impossible to measure, since the work of the committee cannot be isolated from other influences. "One result, emphasized more than any other, was the improvement in employer-labor relations."

In discussing the basic problems of union-management co-operation the author considers not only the difficulties of measurement of results but also the presence of conflicting goals centering around "division of the returns, the quest for security, concepts of responsibility to owners and the public, and the survival issues or rivalry for power." But some committees have been able to overcome these obstacles. The author summarizes: "The measurement of the results of labor-management committee work implies the use of facts and figures which employers have not been in the habit of supplying to the bargaining table. It involves a conflict in method as troublesome as the divergency in goals. . . . The companies and the unions which can face with equanimity these problems of measurement and the conflicting goals are those which can profit by the cooperative achievements of a labor-management committee." To many employers the idea implies something of

<sup>1</sup> Ernest Dale, *Greater Productivity through Labor-Management Cooperation* (New York: American Management Association, 1949).

which they do not approve. Many unions, especially their national officers, think employers not really interested, or question the efficacy of the device because of separation from the collective bargaining machinery. But the author believes, and has some evidence to support her case, that, if only in limited instances, such joint committees may be valuable from the standpoint of employer, labor, and the public.

As to the prospects she says: "Assuming that a few measures of results are watched and that some guarantees of security are granted, it is possible that union-management cooperation through joint committees will expand in times of emergency, in periods of great industrial activity calling for wise use of men and materials, in firms competing on a quality level, in high-cost plants, in unionized sections of a competi-

tive industry, in plants affected adversely by industry-wide bargaining, and in such firms as wish to take intelligent action in the light of research in an expanding or contracting industry or in periods of rapid inflation or deflation." But in most cases it will develop only when there is a specific problem to be solved. And to succeed it will need to be well integrated with the collective bargaining machinery, since its success must depend on the confidence in the authority of those chosen to represent the parties. Under proper conditions, perhaps still rarely found, there appear to be substantial possibilities of gain to all parties from this type of approach to common problems.

EMILY CLARK BROWN

Vassar College

#### BRIEF NOTICES

*Nancy Clark, Social Worker.* By CORA KASIU. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1949. Pp. x+246. \$2.50.

This is one of a series of career books which the publishers have issued to inform young men and women about professions open to them. It is the story of Nancy Clark, an intelligent, fun-loving college graduate who finds in social work the profession which appeals to her most. The story is told of her new friendships, of her classroom and field-work experiences throughout her two years of professional education in a school of social work. The cases assigned her in her field work are well chosen and given in realistic detail. The initial apprehensions and the increasing satisfactions of a student in social work are vividly portrayed. Nancy's response to this new learning experience and the gradual development of her professional attitudes are told in a way that is simple but should be attractive to the young reader.

Miss Kasius has given social work a very useful book. It answers, in a delightful way, many of the questions that young people are asking about social work today.

WILMA WALKER

*Textbook for Almoners.* By DOROTHY MANCHÉE, Almoner, St. Mary's Hospital, London. With a Foreword, by SIR ALFRED B. HOWITT, C.V.O., M.D., President Institute of Almoners. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co., 1947. Pp. xii+466. \$7.50.

Except for a brief summary of the development and the present status of practice and education in medical social work in English hospitals, this is a

very detailed handbook for the guidance of students and practitioners. Directed to the practicing "almoner," the content is presented informally. The reader or student is given instructions ranging from details regarding day-by-day job performance (including how to write letters) to specific guidance in such basic functions as "cooperating with the medical staff." There are descriptions of the social agency services and social security benefits on which the hospital social worker may need to draw to secure assistance needed for her patients. Finally, there is a section describing the diseases most likely to be encountered by a medical social worker, with specific instruction regarding the kinds of social service the patient may require.

The fact that material of this sort has been so carefully accumulated shows that certain needs of medical social workers have been met at a much earlier period in the United States than in England by means of the publication of local directories of social agencies, the *Social Work Year Book*, and specific agency manuals. It is well that the young almoner now has this compendium for information, as well as the wise counsel of a more experienced colleague.

This volume also shows the sharp contrast implicit between medical social practice in England and in the United States. Although there are certain similarities in the approach and in the stated functions of the English hospital almoner, the fact that a volume of this sort is considered necessary points to a lack of progress that is somewhat surprising in view of the interest in England in the teaching of social medicine and in the correlation of social and medical research.

The American student of medical social work—whether physician, hospital administrator, or social worker—will find this book valuable chiefly

because it reveals problems common to social work practice in any country in the development of a sound program of service in a hospital or health agency. Unfortunately no attempt is made to analyze the practice, formulate principles, or offer more than general standards to guide the profession in its continued expansion. The careful analyses characteristic of medical social work in the United States will not be found in this text, which rather presents the experience of the author through a somewhat motley array of precepts and procedures.

D. G.

*The Case Book of a Medical Psychologist.* By CHARLES BERG, M.D. (LOND.), D.P.M. 2d ed. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. 260. \$3.50.

In presenting this series of case studies from his practice as a psychiatrist, Dr. Berg (a British psychoanalyst) is testing his theory that a lay reader may gain both knowledge of the human mind and insight regarding its workings from reading case histories annotated by a running commentary by the analyst. Dr. Berg seeks to clarify the fundamental dynamics of behavior through this method, as well as to build up an understanding of the process of psychoanalysis. Since he specifically addresses himself to the lay reader rather than to his professional colleagues, the lay reviewer appropriately may ignore the technical validity of his analytical interpretations as this can be evaluated only by psychiatrists. The presentation can be considered only from the standpoint of whether it achieves its purpose and whether the purpose itself is a sound one.

It is difficult to appraise what meaning these case studies would have for the intelligent reader with no prior psychoanalytic orientation. Their brevity oversimplifies the bases for the diagnostic inferences which are drawn; and the necessarily condensed summarizations of the treatment process might well lead the unsophisticated layman to the conclusion that therapy is either so easy as not to require professional skill or so mysterious that it takes place without sequence or reason. It is possible that the reader who follows the case material thoughtfully and to the end may thereby add to his fund of knowledge, as well as to his understanding of behavior; but the danger is great that he may instead derive a series of disconnected, partially perceived concepts that would be more confusing than illuminating. Partly counteracting this danger, however, is an excellent summarization in the concluding chapter of the "topography of the mind" and the fundamental tenets of Freudian analysis. Appropriately entitled "Chapter the First and the Last," it sets forth the fundamentals essential to an understanding of the case histories.

It would seem that the chief value of this book would lie in its use for illustration of a more compre-

hensive text on the basic concepts of psychiatry. So used, it might quicken the interest and the perceptions of the nonprofessional reader—as case material is found to do in other areas of instruction. One would seriously question, however, whether Dr. Berg's purpose of elucidating the origins of psychopathology or of clarifying the process of psychoanalysis is served with sufficient accuracy by his method of "letting patients speak for themselves." In this connection it is significant that Sigmund Freud, in the facsimile reproduction of his letter to the author, comments: "You will understand that I [entertain] certain suspicions against the technique of analysts who have made the popularization of analysis their aim. . . . The man in the street is not likely to swallow and digest our conception of an unconscious mind, nor will he be ready to agree to the emphasis we put on the primary urges. Psychoanalysis might never become popular." This letter prefaced the first edition in 1939. The demand for the second edition (1948) may indicate a greater popularity than Dr. Freud envisaged. Whether it indicates also the validity of this approach, or merely the popular appeal of public dissection of the psyche, remains an open question.

D. G.

*The Age of the Great Depression.* By DIXON WECTER. New York: Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. 362. \$5.00.

Heralded as the final volume of the definitive "History of American Life," *The Age of the Great Depression* might as suitably be considered the dedicatory number of a new series, the name for which has not, as yet, been accepted. Indeed, it is doubtful if even Dixon Wecter, with all his genius for the pregnant phrase, can, at this juncture, coin a proper name. Titles suggested from other quarters have been "The Wave of the Future," or "The Turning Stream"; and, although it is doubtful that Mr. Wecter would accept as true the implications raised by either, it is with something of this spirit of promise that he analyzes an age.

The same felicity of expression which marked the *Saga of American Society* and *When Johnny Comes Marching Home* is found in the *Great Depression*. But there are many new characterizations, some of which may last, such as "the obligato of pacifism," "the nuclear tyranny of city life," "the pathology of power." Yet the chief merit of the present book does not arise from its literary success but from a dynamic philosophy of government which underlies its every page. This philosophy is intensely democratic, but each reader must assess for himself its special direction. Wecter ponders: "Whether the New Deal would turn out to be Utopia or myopia only the future could tell."

Nevertheless, the author has undertaken a Herculean task. And it is doubtful if even the editors and originators of the series, Professors Arthur M.



Schlesinger, Sr., and Dixon Ryan Fox contemplated in their prospectus any twelve years, which might so change for all time the foundations of the republic. As Wecter makes a virtue of adversity, it seems very possible that a more objective generation may view the decade of the thirties as one of the bright chapters of an American Renaissance. The constant theme is the adaptability of the American people and their government through the ten long years of the locust. Indeed, his analysis, "The Hundred Days," minimizes this great transition.

It is unnecessary to elaborate here upon the themes of this period, 1929-41. Needless to say, harmony there seldom was. Yet there was a continuity, and the pageant of America from Federalism through Jacksonianism and new Hamiltonianism to a Newer Freedom is spread out before us. But the similarity does not end there; at the close of both the main drama and its understudy in miniature arose a great threat from without. In each case this urgency was met by an appeal to arms, the combined result of which even now is not yet quite clear. It is for this reason too that Mr. Wecter's work assumes its Janus-like aspect.

And yet the author succeeds in his major effort. His theme song becomes that of our most frequently elected president. Indeed, the "magic" initials F.D.R. serve as the focus of integration for the many currents which Mr. Wecter is called upon to unite. But he is not inclined to throw an indiscriminate halo around the head of his subject. He begins with the much quoted remark of Walter Lippmann that, in the year of the great election, Franklin Roosevelt was "no tribune of the people . . . no enemy of entrenched privilege . . . [only] a pleasant man, who without any important qualifications for the office, would very much like to be president" (p. 50).

But this "synthetic champion" quickly began to speak of "priming the pump," "forgotten men," "money changers in the temple," "good neighbors," and, above all, the "conquest of fear." The reviewer does not intend to say that Professor Wecter attributes the social configuration of the era to Roosevelt's personal charm or magnetic radio performances. Instead he would have us look on F.D.R. as an agency rather than the motive force. Though not seduced by hero worship, his philosophy is essentially democratic, if not Rooseveltian.

Chapter headings show the scope of the book: "From Riches to Rags" swiftly makes the setting; "Change of Command," "The Hundred Days," and "Unions on the March" set the tempo; philosophers will seize upon "Youth in Search of a Chance," "Age in Quest of Security," and "Reading, Writing and Revolution." "Rendezvous with Destiny" suggests a social evolutionism which renders the aftermath at Pearl Harbor not an isolated phenomenon but part of a long-range historical cycle.

In the *Great Depression*, which is to stand as the thirteenth and last volume of "The History of American Life," the same "Critical Essay on Authorities"

which has characterized the series is included as a final chapter, and to many this will become the best part of the book. For, from the references so copiously given, they can, if they disagree with Mr. Wecter's continuity, construct their own!

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

*State Labor Legislation, 1937-1947: A Study of State Laws Affecting the Conduct and Organization of Labor Unions.* By SANFORD COHEN. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1948. Pp. 150. \$2.50.

This little volume presents in brief compass the development of labor law in the states through court decisions and statutes affecting unions and raises many of the major questions as to the type of policy embodied in these laws and in the Taft-Hartley Act. The drastic change from the philosophy of the Wagner Act of 1935 and the first state labor-relations acts is shown through the reaction beginning in 1939 to the extensive restrictions adopted by 1947. The major points of the state laws as of May, 1948, are summarized by subjects. It is noted that the restrictive legislation came largely from the South and from states with relatively little industry or experience with unions. A chapter on judicial attitude and the current situation analyzes court decisions and statutes on the closed shop, strikes, boycotts, picketing, and other matters. It finds much confusion and uncertainty, with contradictory decisions in different states, and lack of final word by the Supreme Court on many crucial points of law. But the author feels that at least the trend toward legislative determination of standards is preferable to leaving to the courts the definition of permissible conduct in labor relations.

Several important trends are pointed out: waning emphasis on equalizing the bargaining power of labor, largely to be explained by the change in the size and strength of the labor movement; the tendency to restrict "the permissible boundary of overt conflict between labor and management to an area that encompasses no more than an employer and his immediate employees," a restriction which ignores the very real interdependence of interests among employees of different employers; a lessening concern for union security; concern for protecting the worker from the union, based on a "somewhat archaic conception of the rights of an individual in our economic society"; extensive regulation of the internal affairs, of unions, for which the unions are at least partly themselves to blame because of failure of some to show responsibility commensurate with their new power; and restrictions on strikes in public utilities, resulting from demand for protection of public interests, which raises questions as to freedom and security in other industries also of vital importance.

Finally an attempt is made to set up tests for



judging this type of law, in terms of the general welfare. First is the equalizing of bargaining strength of workers and employers, on the theory that the general welfare is promoted when unions are strong enough to better the level of living of their members. However, little agreement is found as to the type of law needed. Many of the new regulations diminish union bargaining strength but do not insure a proper balance. Here the author might have added that indiscriminating restrictions often weaken the already weak unions more than they do the strong, and so increase inequalities in bargaining power. The second criterion is the consistency of the law with current economic institutions. But the laws which try to limit economic pressure to a very narrow circle, as by prohibiting all boycotts or sympathetic strikes, disregard the fact that standards of one group of workers are affected by those of others. Third, the law should be consistent with the political ideals fundamental to a democratic society. But the author doubts whether the real diminution in freedom inherent in these laws has achieved the needed balance between old and new concepts of rights. These are all important questions which must be considered in the continuing debate as the country seeks the "impartial and just solution" which the author hopes the democratic processes of government will still provide.

EMILY CLARK BROWN

*Adequacy of Workmen's Compensation.* By ARTHUR H. REEDE. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1947. Pp. xxiii+422. \$5.00.

This book meets a serious need in workmen's compensation literature: a recent evaluation of the country's first social insurance program. The last such study, Walter Dodd's monumental treatise *Administration of Workmen's Compensation*, was published in 1936. Professor Reede's study is less comprehensive than Dodd's, but it makes an exceedingly useful analysis of such aspects of workmen's compensation as the development of coverage and benefit provisions, the proportion of wage loss that is compensated, and the relation of injury prevention to compensation costs. Teachers of social insurance classes, especially, will welcome Professor Reede's important contribution to the workmen's compensation literature.

ALTON A. LINFORD

*Investment in People: The Story of the Julius Rosenwald Fund.* By EDWIN R. EMBREE and JULIA WAXMAN. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. viii+291. \$3.00.

This is the story of a unique experiment in philanthropy. Julius Rosenwald was one of America's great businessmen and one of her greatest philanthropists. He made a fortune in Sears Roebuck by a new idea in merchandising, and he gave away between sixty and seventy million dollars in his various philanthropic "causes." Especially important were his gifts in behalf of work with Negroes—to Tuskegee Institute and other Negro colleges and to the building of schools for Negroes in various states in the South. He gave twenty-two million dollars to found the Julius Rosenwald Fund but stipulated that the entire amount should be used in twenty-five years. This book is the interesting story of that Fund, on which this *Review* has already commented.<sup>1</sup> Here is the story of the building of more than five thousand rural schools for Negroes; "the revitalizing of Negro colleges and universities; the development of health services, clinics, and group hospitalization for people of moderate means; and the Rosenwald Fellowships which enabled young people of exceptional talent to realize their highest promise." Here is the story of brilliant Americans, many of them Negroes, who got their start through Rosenwald help. Among them are Marian Anderson; Willard Motley, author of *Knock on Any Door*; Lillian Smith, author of *Strange Fruit*; James Weldon Johnson; Langston Hughes; and many other gifted individuals, including Ralph Bunche, now of the United Nations.

It is estimated that Mr. Rosenwald's gifts to Negro education and welfare other than through his Fund came to four million dollars; to Jewish farm colonization in Russia, five million dollars; "to Jewish charities and institutions, five million dollars; to war work and war relief, two million dollars; to arts and crafts and industrial museums, five million dollars; to general education and research, three million dollars; to hospitals and health agencies, three million dollars; to the Rosenwald Family Association, a charitable corporation created to carry on certain of his interests after his death, eleven million dollars."

This is a very interesting and important book.

<sup>1</sup> XXII (June, 1948), 244-45.

## REVIEWS OF GOVERNMENT REPORTS AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

*Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency:  
Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, 1948.*  
Washington, D.C.: United States Govern-  
ment Printing Office, 1949. Pp. 579-626.

The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation reports that 53,131 disabled persons were rehabilitated during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1948, an increase of 21 per cent over the number of cases closed as rehabilitated in the fiscal year 1947, when the previous high of 1944 was just about reached. All but seven states reported more cases closed as rehabilitated in 1948 than in 1947. Five large industrial states which head the list in numbers rehabilitated—namely, Michigan, California, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and New York—account for better than a third of the total (though none is a top-ranking state in number of rehabilitations per 100,000 population), and all these except New York showed very substantial gains in 1948.

This federal-state program is carried on in the states by the state boards for vocational education, usually as an integral part of the state department of education; in thirty-five states a separate rehabilitation service for the blind is maintained by a specialized state agency providing services to the blind. Total expenditures in 1948 ran close to \$25 million, of which 72 per cent came from federal funds. The federal government pays all costs incurred by the state agencies for administration and for counseling and placing the disabled and, in addition, assumes one-half of the cost of medical treatment, tuition, and other services purchased by the state vocational rehabilitation agencies for their clients from physicians, hospitals, schools, etc.

This *Report*, like others from federal agencies administering grant-in-aid programs, is not a report on actual state operation of the program but on the activities of the federal office and on the statistics and financial data from the states, with a few observations of general applicability. The federal agency is one step removed from operations, and for it to

attempt an analytical report would violate the amenities of the delicate federal-state relationship. Perhaps the protocol must be preserved at any cost, but an argument could be made for more thorough federal reporting on programs like this one when federal dollars bulk large in support of what are sometimes referred to as "national programs."

The first step in vocational rehabilitation is to find the disabled person. The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation has in recent years been negotiating agreements with a great variety of national agencies, both public and private, with a view to facilitating the case-finding efforts of the state agencies, among other purposes. Certainly, the numbers of disabled persons finding their way to state rehabilitation agencies have greatly increased in the five years since Congress substantially altered the program and expanded federal aid. Early referrals are essential to a good case-finding system so that vocational rehabilitation can follow as promptly and smoothly as possible definitive medical treatment or, in the case of the young person, completion of his secondary schooling, without that wasteful gap of months or years during which the disabled person—if he needs vocational rehabilitation services—suffers frustration and defeat either through an unsuitable, makeshift job or through complete idleness. This *Report* sheds no direct light on the promptness of current referrals. Workmen's compensation authorities, health agencies and doctors, and schools should be in a position to refer almost all disabled persons and to refer them early. Such sources, however, account for only 38 per cent of the referrals made to state rehabilitation agencies in 1948. While such a referral is not necessarily made early, nor is a referral from a public assistance agency, for example, necessarily a late one, the hope of developing a good case-finding system lies in stimulating referrals from those sources which could, if they would, refer persons early. Lack of progress in this direction is suggested by an

analysis by this reviewer of persons rehabilitated in 1941, because the same percentage, 38, were then referred by health and educational sources.

After the disabled person has been put in touch with the rehabilitation agency and a plan of rehabilitation has been worked out by the client and the agency, there remains the problem of arranging the medical or surgical treatment necessary to reduce disability and of finding the appropriate resources for the vocational training he may need. This *Report* points to the lack of institutions equipped to render the various services needed by rehabilitation clients. Particular emphasis is laid on the great lack of rehabilitation centers which offer comprehensive services, both physical and vocational. Finally, industry must be ready to receive the disabled person who has prepared himself, through rehabilitation services, for a job.

The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation estimates that 250,000 of the persons who become disabled each year could profit from vocational rehabilitation services. The chief merit of this figure, in use for a number of years for lack of a better one, is that it tends to dispel any complacency about rehabilitating 53,000 a year. While the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation naturally stresses progress, it also points to the obstacles in the way of the program, especially the dearth of facilities for physical restorative services upon which the state services depend. This keystone of rehabilitation for many—reduction of disability through medical care, surgery, physical medicine, or occupational therapy—was until 1943 outside the scope of the federal-state vocational rehabilitation program. The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation reports increasing provision of medical and hospital services, which it attributes to "the greater awareness of medical factors in disabilities, and [to] the growing use of medical consultants" in the state programs.

MARY E. MACDONALD

University of Chicago

*The New York City Housing Authority, Housing, 1946—July, 1949: A Report to Mayor William O'Dwyer. Pp. 96.*

This amazing *Report* is largely the work of photographers and statisticians. Less than a dozen of the ninety-six pages are devoted to

textual comments. The remainder of the *Report* consists of impressive photographs, maps, and illustrations, which are accompanied by a few basic statistics that document the visual impressions.

In the forty-two months covered by this *Report* New York has started forty-two projects—an average of one each month. At the beginning of this period a total of 17,000 dwelling units constituted the total public housing program of the city. Since then the total number of dwelling units built or under construction has mounted to 63,000, and an additional 5,000 are in the planning stage. No city in the country can point to an achievement that is within gunshot of this colossal accomplishment. Moreover, while other cities are still stymied by conflicts of authority and assorted species of entrenched opposition, New York continues to forge boldly ahead. Although President Truman signed the new housing act after this *Report* was completed, New York already had its plans well formulated to take maximum advantage of the new legislation. Fifty sites have been tentatively selected for the additional housing authorized by the act, and a goal of 80,000 more houses has been set. In selecting the fifty new sites, an interesting plan was adopted which gave preference to slum areas adjacent to vacant land. If this plan works out, the opposition of dehousing families should be materially abated; for many of them, instead of being removed from the neighborhood to which they are attached, can simply move into the new dwellings erected on the vacant land adjacent to their present homes.

A brief section of the *Report* is devoted to the private housing constructed during this period by means of FHA insurance. The total number of units authorized in New York under this program was approximately 70,000. Of this number 14,000 have been completed, and the remainder are being occupied at the rate of about 1,500 per month.

A section of the *Report* entitled "Quasi-Public Housing" deals chiefly with the housing constructed by the large insurance companies. These undertakings receive limited public subsidies. Under this program 16,750 dwelling units have already been completed, and an additional 8,000 are either under construction or in the planning stage.

One of the recommendations made to ease the almost insoluble problem of relocating tenants now occupying dwellings slated for demolition is so new and bold that it deserves to be

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widely discussed. The New York City Authority proposes payment of bonuses to these families "realistic enough to enable families to solve their own relocation problems, perhaps enough for an initial payment on a house or enough to remodel or enlarge an existing house." The two arguments advanced in favor of the proposal are that it would stimulate private housing construction and that it would be far cheaper for the city than the rehabilitation of boarded-up slum properties—a method that has been extensively used in recent years.

WAYNE McMILLEN

University of Chicago

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*Essentials of Rural Welfare: An Approach to the Improvement of Rural Well-being.* FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS, 1949. (For sale at Columbia University Press, Morningside Heights, New York.) Pp. 48. \$0.50.

This publication attempts "to define the nature of rural welfare and draw attention to the kinds of interrelationships which exist within it." A product of discussion of staff and advisory committee members of the Rural Division of FAO, it is apparently intended for world-wide use by the United Nations staff, by government officials, and by private organizations engaged in international rehabilitation and welfare planning. Designed for the use of personnel with different experiences and skills, it is necessarily highly general in approach.

The complex nature of rural well-being is reviewed, and there is a discussion of the interrelationships of economic conditions, physical facilities, health, nutrition, education, security, and social adjustment of people. Emphasis is placed on the need to understand the community, to evaluate properly the situation as a whole, and to possess a combination of scientific and folk knowledge in order to achieve success in improving rural conditions. The chapter on "Policies and Programs" includes the need to limit objectives, to formulate minimum standards, and to set up a succession of "targets" or steps to be achieved in reaching standards. There is discussion of the use of demonstration projects and of study of significant rural experiments already under way in various parts of the world, with caution concerning the transfer of experience from one setting to another.

There are notes on the tabular analysis of

"elements, determinants and indicators" presented as the final section of the pamphlet. In this detailed analysis an attempt is made to relate the objectives of welfare policy with the means of achieving them and with the quantitative indicators of the lack of welfare. The list of indicators comprises a useful outline for a survey of welfare conditions in any given area, classified under the major headings of "Personal Conditions," "Levels of Production and Consumption," "Social Amenities," and "Social Organization."

The pamphlet contains little that is new to students of rural community organization. Although mention is made at several points of the need to combine the knowledge of the expert with the judgment of the people for whom improvements are being planned, there is more emphasis on "planning for" than on "planning with," and little help is given on how to stimulate local initiative and leadership. Nevertheless, it should be a useful handbook for persons who, without preparation, hold positions requiring extension of material aid and leadership in planning for rural communities.

GRACE BROWNING

Indiana University

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*The Displaced Persons Commission, Second Semiannual Report to the President and the Congress, August 1, 1949.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1949. Pp. 44. \$0.15.

This semiannual report is issued under the requirements of the Displaced Persons Act of 1948. The *Report* suggests that the 1948 Act "in principle, at least, if not in specific provisions, departs from the 'we don't want you' attitude toward immigrants. Instead, it welcomes the deserving, the suffering victim of totalitarian aggression, the front-line troops of democracy." But this favorable point of view is based on certain aspects of the act which are summarized as follows: It recognizes that the United States wants to share in solving "one of the most tragic aftermaths of modern war, the uprooting of innocent people" from their old homes. Further, the act admits the D.P.'s without regard to current limitations, although they are charged to future quotas. There is also the fact that the act was planned "in the socially desirable terms of resettlement, of an interest and desire to help these new immigrants

find an effective and satisfying adjustment to their new life in America."

However, in spite of the good points of the act, the *Report* points out the difficulties created by the fact that the "entire pattern of restrictions, limitations, preferences, and priorities" of the law may cut the total number of D.P.'s who may enter this country. If that should happen, "America's displaced persons law will have the result of defeating the hopes of the Western World to solve this problem now."

There were, on June 30, 1949, in Western Germany, in Austria, and in Italy, the areas where the Commission was or had been operative at that time, 630,900 D.P.'s in comparison with more than a million in 1945.

Although many people consider the D.P. a "gaunt, hopeless, staring, half-clothed individual who emerged from the concentration camps in the wake of the Allied advance," the *Report* thinks that the major voluntary agencies of the United States and the International Refugee Organization have "provided the material means to restore these people to health and the capacity to earn their own way" and that "what they need now is hope" of again becoming "useful and productive citizens."

A series of tables shows the number of D.P.'s in camp and out of camp in Western Germany, Austria, and Italy and the nationality or ethnic group in these areas at different periods. There is also a useful table that shows the resettlement of D.P.'s by country of destination. According to this table the United States has taken only 15 per cent of all displaced persons resettled by June 30, 1949. Israel and the United Kingdom each exceeded our American percentage. The United States, unlike other countries sharing in the program of international resettlement, requires individual "assurances for jobs and housing which will not displace others" before a request from a displaced person is accepted. While the programs of other countries are said to be on the basis of "labor recruitment" with selection by the governments of those countries, which have "wide latitude under their respective laws and regulations providing for the selection and immigration of displaced persons," our American law imposes such restrictions and limitations as to make our program a great disappointment.

There is some discussion of the IRO and its probable termination on June 30, 1950, which

will be the date for the closing of the majority of its camps. December 31, 1949, is reported to be the last day for new admissions to IRO camps, and March 31, 1950, the last day for admittance to cash assistance programs in areas where IRO operates no camps; and June 30, 1950, is the date when care and maintenance of all kinds will be discontinued for all persons except those who require permanent assistance and for whom no other satisfactory arrangements have been completed, unless these plans for termination of the IRO are altered. The *Report* suggests the probability that IRO will find it necessary to continue its resettlement activities into the fiscal year 1951. "Between 180,000 and 200,000 displaced persons qualified for resettlement, for whom plans have not yet been made, probably will remain under the IRO mandate on June 30, 1950. Assuming that countries of reception can be found for these people, with its present fleet of ships," IRO could not move them until May 1, 1951.

The *Report* tells us that in our American program "voluntary and public agencies continue to play the principal role" in the providing of the necessary "assurances" for the families who are to be resettled here. The weekly rate of "validation of assurances" for the first half of 1949 averaged 3,180 families, or approximately 6,100 persons per week.

Basic to the Displaced Persons Act of 1948 is the requirement that a resettlement plan be completed in the United States for each person or family before they may be considered for immigration. This resettlement plan is represented by the assurances for housing, employment, inland transportation, and against becoming a public charge.

The resettlement of D.P.'s is not like normal immigration, for "good resettlement" in this country requires co-operation and assistance from public and private agencies. For resettlement is "a long-range program which begins with the D.P. overseas and terminates when the goal of American citizenship is attained." The *Report* suggests that the D.P.'s "can do much to assist in filling critical labor shortages" in our states. But practical procedures must provide the D.P.'s with a fair opportunity to take advantage of the best resettlement opportunities and advice offered. And, finally, "specialized procedures should be established for certain groups of D.P.'s if they are to continue their professions after their arrival."

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With regard to co-operative action for resettlement, there are thirteen accredited agencies providing reception facilities, inland transportation from port of entry, and temporary facilities wherever accommodations are necessary. Conducting this work and other services are the American Friends Service Committee, American National Committee To Aid Homeless Armenians, Church World Service, Inc., Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society, International Rescue and Relief Committee, Mennonite Central Committee, National American Federation of International Institutes, National Catholic Welfare Conference, National Lutheran Council, Unitarian Service Committee, United Service for New Americans, Inc., United Ukrainian American Relief Committee, Inc., United States Committee for the Care of European Children, Inc. And many of these agencies have co-operative relationships with other smaller organizations. For displaced persons whose assurances have not come through or from one of the above voluntary agencies, the Travelers Aid Society and its various branches, acting on behalf of the Displaced Persons Commission, provides the necessary services until the immigrant reaches his first residence. "The American Red Cross, through its chapters at Boston, New York, and New Orleans, provides special services including facilities for the care of children, first aid, and warm meals for immigrants." The American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service also seems to have "an advisory relationship to all the voluntary agencies rendering specific services."

The *Report* deals with thirty-one state commissions and committees which have been "a clearing center for public information regarding the program and have reported to their respective governors on the results of the resettlement program within the States." In conclusion it is said that "the displaced persons seem to be earning their way very well" and that by far "the vast majority of American sponsors" have been satisfied with the D.P.'s who have entered their homes, businesses, and farms. A tour of thirteen states made by members of the Public Information Division of IRO indicated that "the displaced person has proved himself in the United States."

Other subjects dealt with in this interesting *Report* include housing and employment, "children and youth" (of the 40,048 immigrants admitted under the Act by June 30, 1949, 25

per cent were under the age of eighteen), legislation, a summary of "Facts about the Displaced Persons Program," and some final conclusions and recommendations. In this last section the Commission reaffirms its conclusion that "the present law is overly complicated, unjust, unfair, and discriminatory." Nevertheless, the Commission is, of course, "striving toward as efficient an administration of the law as possible," and is trying to be "as just as an unjust law permits and as fair as an unfair law allows."

The Commission again endorses H.R. 4567 (amendments to the Displaced Persons Act of 1948), which passed the House of Representatives on June 2, 1949, and recommends the earliest possible enactment of this bill, which the Commission believes will provide for an "adequate, satisfactory, and workable displaced-persons law," so that "the noble task begun in the present law" may be completed.

E. ABBOTT

*University of Chicago*

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*State of Illinois, Annual Report of the Department of Public Welfare for the Fiscal Years July 1, 1942-June 30, 1947. Springfield, 1949. Pp. 250.*

This *Report*, contrary to its title, describes the activities of the individual state institutions and divisions administered by the department for only one year, that for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947. Because no reports were published during four of the war years, owing to the need for conservation of paper, "A Five-Year Summary" appears in the beginning of the *Report*. Here in twenty-seven pages are described the organizational changes that took place in the structure of the welfare department during that time and the major problems, particularly in the care of the mentally ill, with which the department had been faced.

Since the reorganization of the department in 1943, following a study by the American Public Welfare Association, its twenty-five institutions and twenty-two auxiliary divisions are now grouped under four services: Medical and Surgical (mental hygiene), Educational and Correctional, Administrative, and Public Relations. With the transfer in 1943 of its public assistance functions, including its county departments, to the Illinois Public Aid Commission, the remaining services of the department are being ex-

tended locally through seven regional offices.

The ten state hospitals, two state colonies, Illinois Neuropsychiatric Institute, the Veterans' Rehabilitation Center, and seven special services, assigned to the Medical and Surgical Service, each submitted a separate report describing their work. The state hospitals stress the difficulties under which they operated because of the lack of professional and maintenance staff, as well as inadequate or outmoded equipment. The medical and psychiatric treatment of the mentally ill is not always so fully described as one might desire, but it is gratifying to know that use is being made of the various shock and fever therapies at all the hospitals. Elgin State Hospital has continued to perform prefrontal lobotomies on an experimental basis. The results of this experimental surgery are soon to be published. The nonmedical therapies—occupational, industrial, recreational—while still limited in scope are reaching more patients than formerly. Social services are also inadequate, but the year 1947 did see a sizable increase in the number of case workers. As a result, the family care program was expanded, and more case-work services could be given prospective and former patients and their families in the outpatient clinics.

The Illinois Neuropsychiatric Institute, established as a training center for psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, and nurses, also carries on various kinds of research in the field of psychiatry and neurology. The investigation of convulsive disorders has won nation-wide recognition and continues to receive support from private organizations and individuals.

The protection of the dependent children of veterans, of delinquent children, and of children handicapped by physical or mental defect but educable is one of the heavy responsibilities of the Educational and Correctional Service. A clearer picture of what the state has to offer these children might have been presented by grouping together the reports of the various agencies and institutions, instead of scattering them, and by including more in the reports about what is being done in behalf of the children. Limitation of staff and money seriously handicapped the services that might otherwise be given.

On June 30, 1947, the Child Welfare Division was responsible for general social services to 535 children known to the Illinois Soldiers' and Sailors' Children's School and 717 other children throughout the state. Staff was allocated

on a regional basis, and Illinois's great unmet need continues to be local services for children. The licensing program affected the greatest number of children, some 21,000 being under the care of licensed agencies and institutions.

The dependent children of veterans are cared for by the Soldiers' and Sailors' Children's School where they receive good care and education. A real attempt is made to have the institution a home that affords the child opportunity for normal growth and development. The report emphasizes this and the eagerness of the staff to keep abreast of good practices in caring for youngsters.

Delinquent children are served by the Illinois State Training School for Boys and a similar school for girls. While most of the children committed to these two schools are received from the juvenile courts, a few are sent by the criminal courts. One gets an impression from the report of the difficulty encountered in giving interest and response to disturbed children in a setting that in its very nature is restrictive and of the efforts being made within this limitation to encourage boys and girls in activities that will have meaning and value to them when they return to the community. Vocational interest, recreation, and school curriculums are being geared to this end. Treatment is emphasized; nothing is said about discipline, and the omission seems hopeful. It is important to note that 48 per cent of the 196 girls committed during the year were of average or above average intelligence but that 15 per cent were mental defectives. In 1947, 53 girls were pregnant, and 31 babies were placed. One wonders if the pregnant girls and those with venereal disease were committed because they were pregnant or because they were diseased, and if so what psychiatric treatment was made available to them. They need so much more than education, recreation, and vocational training if they are to become adjusted, self-reliant members of society.

The State Reformatory for Women is considered with the school for girls because the minimum age for commitment is sixteen; there is no maximum. It is difficult to imagine a more formidable treatment program than one that must meet the needs of approximately 220 women, ranging in age from sixteen to seventy-six years, of varying degrees of intelligence, with sentences of one year to 199 years, and whose offenses may be disorderly conduct at one extreme and murder at the other. The superintendent says in effect that she does the best she can. One

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can only admire her courage and wish her luck, for it is obvious that "the need for professional service remains urgent." Sports, theatricals, radios, help make leisure time constructive; some of the women work in the reformatory shirt factory, and in 1947 it was possible to raise their wages from three cents to four cents an hour.

The report of the supervision of delinquent children on parole is concerned only with boys; there is no report for the girls or the women. We are told the number of placements, of terminated parolees, of recidivism, but not much of methods, procedures, or objectives.

The two preventive agencies are the Institute for Juvenile Research and the Division for Youth and Community Service. The latter deals with individual communities, and tries to awaken them to their responsibilities and suggest ways in which these responsibilities can be met. The former deals with the individual child and his parents. Through its traveling clinics it offers a state-wide service. It is a commentary on better general understanding of the needs of children that community referrals now exceed court referrals and that the family increasingly seeks the services of the clinics. The Institute is deeply interested in the study and research aspects of its work. Its recommendations of small cottages for the study and treatment of children with certain problems if put into effect might yield data that would provide a better understanding of all children. This is a report worth reading.

In its treatment of handicapped children Illinois has pioneered once again in establishing in Chicago the Illinois Children's Hospital-School, a state-wide residential center for educable handicapped children. These are children physically handicapped so severely as a result of cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy, spinal bifida, or other severely handicapping conditions that they are unable to take advantage of the system of free education in Illinois. This report must be read to be appreciated. It tells about the children, what is being done for them, how concerned the staff is that each child shall benefit, how determined to make them happy and comfortable. It is written with understanding and enthusiasm. This is the first annual report of the school. It is a clear account of work well begun.

All blind children between the ages of two and twenty-one are entitled to training in the School for the Blind, and the school gives a good

report of what it has done to educate the children who have been enrolled. The school offers not only a good curriculum but also competitive sports, swimming, and social activities that will make the life of the blind child as interesting and well rounded as that of his sighted brother. The report is informative and helpful to those interested in the education of blind children. The School for the Deaf limits itself to a brief page report, reaffirming its desire to give the children intrusted to it the best possible education.

For adults with defects of eye or ear Illinois provides the Eye and Ear Infirmary in Chicago with free medical service for needy people suffering from diseases of the eye or ear, nose, or throat. This is on a state-wide basis under the University of Illinois School of Medicine and the Department of Public Welfare.

The Division for the Blind offers a counseling service that works with the individual blind. The division has fifteen teachers, themselves blind, who go anywhere in the state to visit the blind person in need of counsel. Training and employment facilities are also developed by the division. The most recent and far-reaching development was a counseling service, begun in 1946, for preschool blind children and their parents. The division, the school for the blind, and other interested state organizations have co-operated in institutes to help parents to a better understanding of the very young blind child and his needs.

War veterans who suffer from disabilities that prevent them from engaging in gainful employment are cared for in the Illinois Soldiers' and Sailors' Home. The institution places primary emphasis on its rehabilitation program, which is concerned largely with the necessary work in the institution. As a rule the veterans in the Home are elderly and in need of custodial care.

The Soldiers' Widows' Home can care for only ninety-five women. The treatment program at the home is very simple because of the limited activities and interests of the group it serves, a fourth of whom are eighty-five years of age or older.

The *Report* also includes reports by the Administrative Service and Public Relations Service, and twenty-six pages of statistical tables concerned primarily with the population in the various state institutions, their movement, types of mental disorders or defect, and per capita expenditures.

MARY ZAHROBSKY

*University of Chicago*

*Michigan Social Welfare Commission, Fifth Biennial Report July 1946—June 1948.* Lansing, Mich., 1948. Pp. 141.

The commission's report is organized into "Findings and Recommendations," "Social Welfare Activities," "Eligibility for Assistance," and "County Statistics." Thirty-nine pages are devoted to tables showing by counties the number of recipients for each month of the biennium and the total payments for old age assistance, aid to dependent children, and aid to the blind. General relief tables are also included.

The first of eleven recommendations is for an increase in the permissible maximum of old age assistance from \$50 to \$60, which doubtless would result in adjustments in food and clothing allowances for one-third of the state's aged recipients. A maximum of \$80 was suggested for those receiving convalescent-home care or temporary hospitalization. The commission also recommends a modification of current residence requirements in accordance with reciprocal agreements to be made with other states, thus avoiding the use of general relief for aged and blind, as is now necessary, until residence requirements are met. The abolition of legal settlement requirements among the counties for eligibility for general assistance was another recommendation.

The expenditure for public assistance for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1948, was over seventy-seven million. This was more than ten million in excess of the aggregate granted to recipients in the preceding year. The point is clearly made that the number of recipients will continue to vary with general economic conditions but that many persons must depend on public aid because for children deprived of parental support, for many aged, blind, and disabled "there are no benefits to be derived from expanded employment and high wage levels."

Assistance payments for aid to dependent children reached the highest point since the program's inauguration. This was chiefly because of the rise in the cost of living and the fact that in the previous peak year, 1941-42, grants had not been established on an actual cost-of-living basis. In September, 1943, the food standards had been adjusted to actual food prices, and the schedule of requirements in a low-cost diet formulated by the United States Department of Agriculture was used.

Services to children are reported to have been strengthened rather than expanded. The staff of

consultants was increased from eight to eleven, and, while this meant fewer child welfare demonstration units, it has proved effective, especially in those areas of the state where public and private child welfare services are most limited. The number of licensed units for the day care of children was almost doubled during the biennium.

This is a most comprehensive and well-organized *Report*. Its content is rich, and the statistical tables included in the text are excellent.

MARY HOUK

*Division of Social Service  
Indiana University*

*Kentucky Department of Welfare, Report for the Annual Period Ended June 30, 1947.* Frankfort, Ky., 1948. Pp. 94.

Kentucky has continued to operate its welfare services through an omnibus department, created in 1936. It is comprised of six divisions, within three of which are twelve institutions. A parole board is also within the department. Public assistance is state administered.

A letter to the governor calls attention to the grossly inadequate appropriation for the biennium 1946-48. Inadequate diets for institutional inmates and woefully insufficient staff services have resulted. An effort of the department and the governor to place all employees under the merit system failed for want of an appropriation.

A summary of the state's construction program during the war and postwar years indicates that, while three new institutions have been added and several millions of dollars provided for rebuilding or adding to other institutions, there are still many pressing needs. The Division of Engineering and Construction, although part of the State Welfare Department, is responsible for development and maintenance of all properties of the commonwealth except those under the Department of Highways.

Brief narrative reports from each division and each institution are included. Recent establishment of a classification committee has vastly improved the correctional program, and the better development of library services is mentioned by almost all institutional superintendents as having been of benefit. All institutions and divisions stress low salaries and insufficient personnel. The Child Welfare Division stresses



the need for wider coverage and more trained workers.

The importance of federal aid to low-income states such as Kentucky is reflected in two parts of the report. Public assistance grants which are among the lowest in the country had already reflected some increase as a result of the 1946 change in the formula for federal matching under the Social Security Act. The *Report* also chronicled the story of a virtual gift from the federal government when, in 1946, the Kentucky State Hospital was returned to the state after five years' use. The United States had spent several millions of dollars on construction and plant improvement and had installed considerable excellent equipment. The plant was returned for a consideration of \$1.00, and the equipment was sold to the state for a nominal sum. These two bright spots in the otherwise sad story of underfinanced welfare services suggest the need for federal aid and federal standards in other aspects of public welfare.

Too much stress is placed on the need to increase farming operations at the institutions, doubtless because of the inadequate appropriations. This reviewer likes the frank narrative reporting on progress and on unmet needs but would find an appendix of statistical tables of help in giving an over-all picture of state services and fiscal management.

GRACE BROWNING

Indiana University

*South Carolina State Department of Public Welfare, Eleventh Annual Report for the Year Ended June 30, 1948. Columbia, S.C., 1948. Pp. 62.*

This brief *Annual Report*, which details the activities and expenditures of the South Carolina Department of Public Welfare, includes 20 pages of text and 42 pages of statistical and financial data organized in the form of tables, charts, and schedules.

The narrative part of the *Report* is departmentalized except for some introductory remarks. These deal with four subjects. First, the lack of public understanding of local responsibility and authority for the administration of the program is deplored. No corrective steps are advanced, however, except for citation of the statute which anchors the program to local community control by creation in each county of a county board of public welfare with broad pow-

ers and responsibilities. In this discussion, cognizance is taken of the fact that local units are not required by law to participate financially in the program and also that the law permits appeals from local decisions to the state department. It is not clear whether these provisions are considered responsible for or contributory to local apathy toward the program.

Personnel changes during the year are next discussed in a paragraphic summary of staff turnover, which highlights the fact that the agency experienced considerably fewer separations this year than the previous year.

In an ensuing discussion of changes in the law it is noted that no changes were made in the state law governing the operations of the department but that the revisions of the Social Security Act enacted during the year will eventually but not immediately make it possible for the department to "increase substantially" the number of recipients and the average amounts payable to recipients in all three categories. Current recipient rates and average payments are recognized to be below the need.

The introductory comments end with endorsements of state legislation that has been pending for several years.

The divisional reports summarize the year's work in child welfare, public assistance, and services to the blind. The latter section receives three-fifths of the entire space devoted to divisional activities, despite the fact that this program for the blind reaches fewer people and involves fewer expenditures than the other two programs. It conducts the usual activities subsumed under such divisions, apparently with a minimum of problems.

The year in child welfare was one of definite progress. Child welfare services were made available in all forty-six counties of the state but in only twenty counties through specially trained workers. In three other counties federal funds were allocated for child welfare workers, but none was available. A gratifying improvement in staff development is noted in the fact that a total of thirty child welfare workers were employed in the current year as compared with only eighteen during the preceding year. In addition, eight workers-in-training were employed as compared with five during the preceding year. The number of children served increased by over eleven hundred. Encouragement as to the sound development of the program is taken from the fact that the majority of children were given service while in their own homes, "thus



carrying out the real purpose of child welfare services—to preserve the home.”

For the public assistance recipient, the *Report* acknowledges that the year was a “struggle to exist under the pressure of continually rising living costs without corresponding increase in the amount of his assistance award.” Two trends in public assistance became discernible during the year of report; namely, the number

of applicants leveled off, and the percentage of applicants found eligible dropped 10 points on the average. These trends are attributed to postwar “settling down” and to an increasing ability of relatives to help.

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